

Modern Methods in Secondary Education

Modern Methods in Secondary Education

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Third Edition



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monstrosities. What is demanded for survival is thinking and feeling human beings functioning to the fullest of their potentials. It is our conviction that only through relevant education can those potentials be achieved.

The authors of *Modern Methods* have always stressed teaching methods that begin with students rather than with teachers or curriculum guides or textbooks, believing that young people are successful and happy only when they are actively involved in their schoolwork. The writers of the present edition maintain that fundamental attitude. The "newness" of the edition will be found in many of the ways in which this attitude can be developed. In addition to a complete updating of its social references, the third edition also concerns itself with the newer developments in educational theory and practice, including inquiry approaches to curriculum and methods, innovative evaluation procedures, and, throughout the volume, ways to reach and teach the educationally deprived student. Those aspects of earlier editions which long ago proved their relevancy and are now widely imitated have been maintained and updated—educational games and simulations, group procedures, sociometrics, counseling techniques for the teacher, and practices for the democratic classroom.

One of the most popular features of *Modern Methods* in the past has been its application of actual anecdotal materials (collected from a multitude of teachers, administrators, and other school personnel) to illustrate, amplify, and support theories and practices discussed. Anecdotes, most of them new, continue as an important adjunct to the text. Also, readability and sense of humor are retained.

While *Modern Methods* has been widely read in the past and while we hope that it has helped teachers perfect their teaching attitudes and styles, it is only now in the 1970s that we believe that the schools are ready and willing to adapt themselves to more extensive utilization of these practices. Now more than ever, the *Modern* in *Modern Methods* is asked for by prospective teachers and practicing teachers—and it is our hope that this volume is modern.

To the list of family and friends who supported this endeavor must be added the names of those whose assistance was indispensable: Dorothy D. Hodges and Michael Codirenzi, who sometimes disagreed with what they typed and were therefore doubly helpful, and Deborah Doty, of Holt, Rinehart and Winston, whose enthusiasm, empathy, and patience have placed her warmly in our affections.

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Modern Methods in Secondary Education

It Takes All Kinds *many people, many teachers*

1

So you want to be a teacher!

Somehow you've decided that teaching is an important and interesting career. You've come to believe that working with adolescents is exciting and significant; that there is a special thrill and satisfaction in helping someone share what you understand and appreciate; that, as Henry Adams observed, "a teacher affects eternity." While it may not be possible to determine all the influences which led you to your decision, certainly we can speculate that it stems partly from the kinds of teachers to which you have been exposed. Perhaps some individual teacher helped to illuminate your own existence, or perhaps your experiences have been such that you are determined to be better than some (or all) of the teachers you have known.

Your immediate concern, of course, is how to become a good teacher. Your concept of what is "good" may be influenced not only by your real experiences but also by vicarious ones such as reading *Up the Down Staircase*, *Goodbye, Mr. Chips*, *The Prime of Miss Jean Brodie*, *The Blackboard Jungle*, *The Thread That Runs So True*, or *Good Morning, Miss Dove*. Perhaps, too, you stand in admiration of Annie Sullivan and her "miracle working" with Helen Keller, or of Sylvia Ashton-Warner and her work among the Maoris. Perhaps you've read of the challenges and successes encountered by Herbert Kohl, Jonathan Kozol, and James Herndon in their efforts to educate young people of the ghetto. The

teachers you look to for comparison—whether they be real or fictional—are all different, and each emerges as uniquely successful.

It is hard to find a pattern among successful teachers. Probably their only common quality is that they are humane and interesting people. But there are many ways to be humane, just as there are many ways to be interesting.

For generations, arguments have raged over whether a teacher is “good” because he is proficient in subject-matter knowledge or whether he is “good” because he is expert in his knowledge of pedagogy.

Some critics of education have contended that being a good scholar is sufficient qualification for being a good teacher. But everyone remembers teachers who were fine scholars and poor teachers. Likewise, it is well known that a teacher is something more than a good technician. Everyone also remembers teachers who used a variety of pedagogical gimmicks but could not answer a simple question requiring knowledge beyond that provided in the text. Obviously, the best teachers are those who not only know what they are talking about, but who also know how to share their knowledge and how to help others discover for themselves the freedom that knowledge can provide.

Beyond the balance of scholarship and pedagogical skill, what attributes make an individual a good teacher? What are some of the ways in which a teacher can be both humane and interesting?

It will prove helpful to put in writing a description of one's most liked, and one's most disliked, teacher. The attributes described should be given careful consideration; a class analysis of individual profiles, as well as an analysis of the class composites, may help to clarify students' goals for teacher education.

A vicarious visit with several teachers in their classrooms at a typical secondary school and a consideration of what students, parents, and the principal think of them will help us to see them realistically and to isolate the good qualities they possess.

First on the list is a teacher of biology.

Mike Felder

Mike appears to be an amiable person. He doesn't seem concerned about the noisy way his students enter the classroom. As the bell rings, he is riffling through some papers. With the ringing of the bell the class becomes quiet and attentive as he switches on the overhead projector, which shows the cross section of a tooth in transparency. After a discussion of the various parts of the tooth shown on the diagram, there is a scuffling of chairs as six students move to the front of the room and present pro and con reports on the effect of fluorides on tooth decay. After the reports the discussion gets a bit noisy since some students are adamant in their views. Mr. Felder occasionally serves as parliamentarian, but makes no comments on the topic. With about five minutes remaining in the period, he calls on two of the students who gave reports to summarize the case for and against fluoridation, summarizing the opposite view of that taken in their report.

The Classroom

Mr. Felder's classroom is filled with charts, mock-ups of the human body, and a good many student-constructed projects. Along one wall is a row of cabinets with fish tanks and several cages containing rats, guinea pigs, and gerbils. A large bookcase is filled with standard reference works and paperback editions on a wide variety of subjects. A good many titles, such as *Inherit the Wind* and *To Kill a Mockingbird*, seem only distantly related to biology. The bulletin board across the rear wall deals with fluoridation, but appears to be a bit jumbled.

The Teacher

After class Mr. Felder explains that he is in his seventh year of teaching. *"The first year I taught I lectured far too much. I realized during my student teaching that I really didn't know enough biology, so I spent my first year reading and preparing detailed lecture notes. I remember thinking that if I prepared period-long lectures the students couldn't ask questions that I couldn't answer. As I look back I remember a lot of inattention and talking in my class; it must have been pretty boring. Anyway, after my first year I began to experiment with different teaching techniques. I belong to several professional organizations and get a good many practical teaching tips from their periodicals and conferences. If they seem promising I try them.*

"Today's class was actually rather routine. Sometimes I try something and it turns out to be a complete fiasco, and I have to drop it and try something else. I think I reach most of the students in one way or another. Take today for example: I don't imagine too many students will be able to identify all the parts of a tooth, but I'll bet most of them will know the pros and cons of fluoridation. And I think they'll remember the value of scientific data in helping to decide social issues."

The Student

"You can't help but be interested in Mr. Felder's class. He really upsets the sponges—you know, those kids who take down everything the teacher says to get ready for the test. I've seen whole days when Mr. Felder didn't say 'boo'! Sometimes we get off on a tangent, and he has to pull us back. Just knowing the facts isn't enough in his class.

"He also has a terrific sense of humor. I don't mean he's a clown or anything; it's just that he usually has something funny to say and somehow or other it always has to do with the lesson. Besides being able to make jokes, he also knows how to take them. Mr. Felder says that if you don't know how to laugh, you don't know how to live."

The Parent

"I remember biology as a lot of things to memorize and diagram. But Ray comes home talking about things that I have to do some checking about myself.

Some parents got upset when the class was studying reproduction, but when the principal backed up Mr. Felder and they found out it was handled tastefully and sensibly, they shut up. Ray tells me they're studying fluoridation now. I guess there will be more complaints."

The Principal

"Mr. Felder is one of the best teachers in the school. From what I hear of student scuttlebutt, it seems he keeps up to date and provides challenges. Sometimes his classes get a bit noisy, and some of the nearby teachers complain. The one thing that bothers me, however, is that he handles some pretty controversial topics without checking with me first. I had three sets of parents on my neck last year because of topics discussed in his classes. I've learned that he handles things fairly, but I guess I'd have to say that I'm glad I don't have too many like him on the question of controversial subjects."

Joanne Young

Miss Young's name is descriptive. She is young and stands barely over five feet in height; she might be taken for one of the students except that she is wearing heels. Her class is geography, and the topic is Latin America. As the class enters the room Miss Young is focusing a slide projector. When the bell rings she walks briskly to the front of the room where, from behind a podium which almost hides her, she begins to lecture on the physiographical features of South America. Miss Young's voice is surprisingly strong for such a small person, but she doesn't sound particularly confident. Some members of the class appear to be taking notes, but others are peering out the window. After forty minutes of lecture, with an occasional reference to the map or a specific question of fact to the class, Miss Young announces, "I want to show you some slides of life in Colombia." She pronounces it "Colombeea," as a native would. As she shows the slides and describes the contrasting living conditions of the various peoples of the country, she seems more relaxed and confident, and the students exhibit greater interest. Before the slides are finished, however, the bell rings and the students depart noisily. Miss Young cannot conclude the lesson.

The Classroom

It is rather bare. A bulletin board on one wall has a few newspaper clippings about Latin American politics, but there is no theme or organization about them. There are a few books to be seen along with the rolled-down map of South America.

The Teacher

"I guess it's obvious that this is my first teaching job. Actually I was lucky to get it. I came in just after a teacher had resigned at midyear and the principal

took me on impulse I guess. I have a B.A. in sociology and I was in the Peace Corps. I've had only three semester hours of geography, and I have to read a lot to keep up. I've never had a course in how to teach, so I'm attending classes two nights a week at the university: one in teaching methods, the other in geography. I will have to take additional work in history, economics, and education to be certified. On the nights after classes I have to prepare for the next day, and sometimes I don't get to bed until around 2 A.M. The other teachers help me out a lot with ideas on how to teach, but I'm still nervous in class. When we complete the unit on South America and go on to a new area I'm really going to have to work."

The Student

"Miss Young gets a bit rattled at times. Some days she runs short of material and other days—like today—she forgets to stop in time to give us the homework assignment. She tells us some really interesting stories about her experiences in the Peace Corps, though. She gets mad at us sometimes and says we don't appreciate our chance to get an education. She's okay; she'll learn."

The Parent

"Miss Young is something of an idol to my daughter and some of her friends. I guess it's because she's a woman who has done something out of the ordinary by serving in the Peace Corps. I think Miss Young has caused Anne, my daughter, to think more about her future and what she'll do with it."

The Principal

"I hired Miss Young even though she lacked a good many of the formal qualifications for teaching. She's doing quite well, considering everything. She's trading on her experiences a lot to get through the year. She'll go to summer school to do work toward certification and learn some teaching methodology. By the time the new year begins she'll be on the right track. I think she has what it takes: interest in her profession, a desire to learn all she can, and a spirit of adventure. It's too bad she didn't get her education background earlier, though."

Dorothy Rumsey

Mrs. Rumsey is a reserved, middle-aged woman who stands quietly behind her desk as the students noiselessly file in and take their seats. There is no noise or talking before the bell as in Mr. Felder's class. The class is reading *Romeo and Juliet* aloud, with interspersed comments on the passages by Mrs. Rumsey. Most of the class is reasonably attentive, but two students in the back are passing notes. Toward the end of the hour Mrs. Rumsey distributes a duplicated article from a magazine which discusses the debate about whether Shakespeare or

Bacon actually wrote the plays attributed to Shakespeare. The article is homework reading for class discussion the next day. During the last ten minutes of class the students begin the homework assignment.

The Classroom

Mrs. Rumsey's classroom is a model of order. Her bulletin boards are much neater than Mr. Felder's; she does them herself. She files the material for each bulletin board topic in manila envelopes for reuse each year. Among the potted geraniums and African violets on the window ledge are dictionaries and collected works of the authors her class studies throughout the year. A cabinet in the rear of the room holds copies of the mimeographed material that is distributed as it becomes appropriate.

The Teacher

"I've been teaching for twenty years now, and I've found that the students work better when they know exactly what is expected of them. My students know that the classroom is a place for serious business. It's my job to plan and execute the lessons, and it's their job to do the assigned work and learn. We all know our jobs and we do them."

The Student

"Mrs. Rumsey is nice, but she won't put up with any nonsense. Sometimes a new student gets it in the neck before he learns. She just sort of stares you down. Her classes are pretty good and I guess we learn, but I wish she'd smile more."

The Parent

"Mrs. Rumsey is solid. She is cut from the old mold. These new teachers are too lax and easygoing. Not Mrs. Rumsey; she makes kids toe the line. Our Karl had a tendency to get out of hand until he got in her class."

The Principal

"Mrs. Rumsey is a fixture. She was here when I came, and I have the feeling she'll be here when I'm gone. She does a solid job of teaching and her reports are always on time and models of accuracy. One interesting thing I've noticed: on those rare days when Mrs. Rumsey is out sick and we have to get a substitute, the substitutes always comment that the classes can tell her just what the lesson will be and are concerned that they do not fall behind on the plans Mrs. Rumsey has made. Her discipline seems to become part of the students after a while."

Doug Williams

Mr. Williams is a recently discharged career Navy veteran who teaches industrial arts. His students are currently engaged in a unit on electricity; several are working on their own radio receiver sets, and others are doing research in a separate reference room to one side of the main shop area. Mr. Williams moves around among the students commenting on their work and occasionally helping out with a soldering job. Before long, however, he is talking to a student in his office. As soon as one student departs, another goes in. By the end of the period four students have made the trek to the office.

The Classroom

The equipment in the shop is relatively new and well kept, but there is no attempt at making the room anything more than the workroom it is. About five minutes before the end of the period, the students begin putting away their projects and replacing tools and equipment. As the bell rings all is in order.

The Teacher

Mr. Williams explains that somehow he has become father-confessor to his students. He doesn't quite know how it happened. He guesses it may be because he is about the age of many of their fathers and, unlike many of their fathers, he is willing to listen:

"Students often come in after school. One or two of those boys I talked to during class will be in this afternoon. After that I have to do my planning for the next day. I seldom go home before 6 P.M., but I don't mind. These boys are usually the ones who won't go on to college and, unfortunately, our school doesn't take as great an interest in them as it does in the college-bound.

"I suppose I'm infringing on the counselor's job, but he doesn't seem to mind."

The Student

"Mr. Williams is tops. He's the only person in this school who'll listen to us and help us to get jobs when we graduate. A few of us were thinking of quitting school, but he talked us out of it."

The Parent

"I resented Mr. Williams at first. My boy was always talking 'Mr. Williams this' and 'Mr. Williams that.' I even went to the school to tell him to mind his own business, but he was so glad to see me I couldn't complain. We talked about my boy for a long time and I think I learned a few things."

The Principal

"I suppose Mr. Williams is right. I guess somehow we are less sensitive to the needs of the boys in shop classes. We're a comprehensive high school but the

majority of our students go to college. Mr. Williams may not be the best shop teacher, but he does help his students by listening to their problems and working with them."

Frederika Taylor

The preciseness of Mrs. Taylor's subject is not shown in her rapidly scrawled and explained solutions to the problems on which the class is laboring. While she is a competent teacher, Mrs. Taylor's main asset is her contribution to school morale. She has a cheerful good morning for everyone—even on Mondays. She is especially well informed about school affairs and spends a few minutes of almost every period discussing the latest school activities with her students. She is present at all school functions and voluntarily chaperones school dances. Mrs. Taylor was the first Negro teacher assigned to this school, and in the first few months she was confronted with suspicion by several of her students. However, her charm, vivacity, and competence in her subject have long since cured any color bias that may have existed.

The Classroom

Mrs. Taylor's classroom is friendly in a "homey" way. A certain casualness of arrangement is present—along with flowers and a wide variety of magazines. Her bulletin boards don't show great imagination, but they are used to instruct and they interest her students. Always on view are the latest activities posters; and there is a photograph of the school mascot as well as the school emblem, which was presented to Mrs. Taylor by last year's graduating class.

The Teacher

"I enjoy teaching algebra, but I think what I enjoy most is simply working in the school and with the students. I've been here only four years now, but I am student government advisor and on the faculty policy committee. We have one of the best student governments in the state—we even let the students run it! And we have good teacher morale because the teachers also know they can have their just grievances heard without a lot of fuss being kicked up."

The Student

"Mrs. Taylor is all right as a teacher. She sometimes makes mistakes in the problems we're working on, but she doesn't get mad when we correct her—and we do learn our math. As a person, she's terrific! The thing we like best is her interest in school activities. She attends everything and tells kids how well they do in school plays or football games. She even said something nice about the basketball team after we lost by forty points. I guess we sometimes abuse her willingness to help with things we're doing, but she never complains. Her race? Why, she's a Negro, but what difference does that make? I've never noticed."

The Parent

"Our daughter is a junior this year and is pretty excited about the junior banquet and dance. This is a new event instituted by the student government with Mrs. Taylor's advice. The junior class undertakes various projects to pay for the whole affair. Mrs. Taylor puts in many Saturdays in the fall organizing and helping the juniors."

The Principal

"Mrs. Taylor gets things done that I would balk at trying: like the time she appeared before the school board and requested more funds for school activities. The school board complimented her on the case she presented, and she got the money. It irked me at the time because I felt that that was my job, but we talked about it and I've gotten over my annoyance."

The Ideal Teacher

Reflecting on the various qualities of Mike Felder, Joanne Young, Dorothy Rumsey, Doug Williams, and Frederika Taylor, what is "good" about them as teachers? Is any one of them an "ideal" teacher? Some of them concentrate on subject matter while others are more people-oriented. Their approaches to organization and daily operation are as varied as they themselves are. What is the special quality, or qualities, each possesses which entitles him to be called "teacher"? Each has obvious weaknesses, but each is in some way successful in helping students discover either knowledge, self, or both. Because they have weaknesses, none of them can be called ideal. But is there any human being you have known who did not have weaknesses? Weakness is what helps to make us human. Perhaps the recognition of weaknesses in people we admire allows us to see the possibility of becoming like them in those things we wish to emulate.

In short, the ideal teacher—one without faults—is a myth. To concentrate one's efforts on becoming ideal is to lose the opportunity of realistically developing strengths and potentialities.

The Teaching-Learning Process

The debate about what constitutes good teaching has, at times, generated more heat than light. Theorists and practitioners have sometimes been forced into positions more extreme than they really espouse. In the end, an analysis of the various positions comes down to "know what," "know why," and "know how." The "what" position places its emphasis on subject-matter knowledge. The "why" position is more concerned with broad values, purposes, and continuity of culture. The "how" position is concerned with the practical skills of teaching.

The person who wishes to become an effective secondary-school teacher must achieve a balance among "why," "what," and "how." Failure to know "why" results in aimless, disorganized teaching that inevitably stresses the acquisition of

information for its own sake. The teacher who does not know his subject cannot determine "why" he is teaching or "what" he should teach; the use of the latest audiovisual equipment cannot disguise the fact he simply does not know what he is talking about. Similarly, knowledge of a subject that cannot be communicated to one's students is of no value.

Two additional aspects of the teaching-learning process should be acknowledged. The first is a consideration of the student as the object of the teaching-learning process. This may be labeled "know the student." The academically oriented critics of education have largely ignored the research studies on adolescent psychology and learning theory. Teaching and learning are a process; and if students are not learning, teachers are not teaching effectively. The good teacher cannot ignore factors affecting the student's ability to learn. (See Chapter 4 for more extensive discussion of the adolescent today.)

The second aspect may be designated "know how well." An important part of a teacher's job is evaluation. The progress made toward the goals that have been set by the student as learner and by the teacher as teacher must be determined. In Chapter 13 the evaluation process is described in reference to tests and grading.

What this book is designed to do is to offer you the opportunity to crystallize what you already know, to explore and learn skills you do not have, and to synthesize for yourself those attributes which will allow you to become that most needed and admirable creature: a good teacher.

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- Holt, John. *How Children Learn*. New York: Pitman Publishing Corporation, 1967. Examples of how children employ a natural style of learning and what teachers can do to encourage it.
- . *How Children Fail*. New York: Pitman Publishing Corporation, 1964. A straightforward, fascinating argument for why students fail ("... they are afraid, bored, and confused.") with interesting solutions recommended.
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The Real World of the Beginning Teacher. Report of the Nineteenth National Teacher Education and Profession Conference. Washington, D.C.: National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards, 1966. "What it's really like" through the eyes of a variety of writers; contains suggestions about changes needed to make the job of beginning and established teachers a more effective, happy one.

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Metamorphosis

from student to teacher

2

Student teaching is the culmination of the prospective teacher's preparatory years in college. It is the proving ground for an individual and therefore a major landmark in his life.

In this chapter the discussion of student teaching and its many complexities assumes that the experience occurs in the "normal" situation. That is, one in which the student is placed in a secondary school for several periods a day or a whole day, with one or more supervising teachers, and is periodically visited by a college or university special subject supervisor. However, many institutions are utilizing new approaches that have promise of providing more assistance to the student teacher. Micro-teaching, for example, is one procedure utilized. The student teacher "teaches" a special lesson focused on a particular kind of teaching act, such as motivation, to a small group of secondary school students. This teaching is videotaped. The youth who were taught and the student teacher comment on the micro-teaching effort, and the videotape is also viewed and critiqued by the university supervisor and, in some instances, by the student teacher's classmates. There are many variations on this procedure. Sometimes the video camera is brought into a "live" classroom, and the resultant efforts critiqued later by the university supervisor, the supervising teacher, other students, or a variety of combinations of these people. The development of "mini-courses" utilizing videotape playbacks has also been tried in some institutions. Innovation with a

variety of techniques is one of the major thrusts of the federally funded Teacher Corps programs. These experimental and innovative situations, while being tried out in some institutions, do not appear to have supplanted the standard program. Eventually one may predict there will be a rather different look to teacher education—perhaps by year 2000? Change in higher education is slow. But whether the new technology is being fully used, or the program rests primarily on mere human interaction, the human component is present: student teachers who have new skills to learn, experienced teachers with guidance to provide, and college or university personnel to work with all groups.

The methods and strategies of teaching discussed in this volume are those essential for the beginning, as well as the experienced, teacher. Student teaching is the bridge; it is the process of induction into the full responsibility of teaching under the guidance of more experienced people. Although student teaching is not strictly speaking an aspect of "methods," the rationale behind including a consideration of it in this volume should be obvious. Most of those using this book—if past experience is an indicator—will soon be, or are already engaged in, student teaching or a teaching internship. From the authors' contact with such students, they know that many fears and anxieties exist about that experience. Some of the problems are endemic to any new situation. Others are uniquely associated with the peculiar nature of student teaching when one is part student, part teacher. The methods and techniques that are advocated in this book can be successfully used only by people who have gained confidence in their ability to teach. A well-structured student-teaching experience will be one that permits the beginner to try out many of the methods described in this volume.

Those who have had other teaching experience—in private schools, in military service, as a substitute, as a teacher's aide, or as a teacher at another level in the educational hierarchy—will also find this material instructive. Experienced teachers may find in this chapter insights into their own future roles as supervising teachers and may therefore gain some knowledge of the subtler interpersonal problems involved.

The student-teaching experience is organized so that teachers:

- Are gradually inducted into teaching
- Are observed and evaluated by the resident teacher¹ and the college supervisor
- Have ready access to the resources in the school and the community which are available to any teacher
- Begin to learn about, and to know, the adolescents in their classes
- Are helped to evaluate their own strengths and weaknesses

¹ There is some variation in the terminology used to identify the various people with whom a student will work during student teaching. The teacher in the school may be designated as resident teacher, cooperating teacher, critic teacher, or some equivalent. College and university supervisors are usually referred to as such. Student teachers are sometimes called "intern teachers."

In the following sections these and other aspects of the student teaching experience will be discussed and illustrated.

One student teacher's log describes some of the typical early experiences:

After looking forward to it for so long, I started my student teaching. Well, not really—I'll have to wait until next Monday to really get into it. This week I will be observing the classes that I will eventually take over. . . . What a change from the university! These kids are awake and jumping at 8:30 A.M.—and on Monday morning, no less! . . . I found the classroom and was welcomed again by Mrs. B., as I had met her two weeks ago and gotten acquainted. I went through the whole day with Mrs. B. and was introduced to all of her classes. I am worried about having to learn all those names. I carried the seating charts around all day, hoping that eventually the names will all sink in.

At lunch I was introduced to several members of the faculty. Everyone was friendly and interested in my reactions to the school. During the afternoon I received two added bonuses (?) for a first day. I felt I was getting into the routine of things when a bell sounded in the middle of the fifth period. I sat looking startled until someone yelled "fire drill." I got out with the rest of them. After school I saw another school operation—faculty meeting. It wasn't at all like I had pictured. With 150 faculty members it was more like a convention. Things were somewhat unorganized. Some teachers were busy grading papers, small groups were carrying on their own conversations. I found it difficult to take it all in. During this meeting I was introduced to the whole faculty, and half-dazed, managed to squeak out a few words about myself. After the main meeting I met with the Language Department and received a cordial welcome from all. I was bushed when I got home. The pace seemed very different from my typical day on campus.²

So reads one student's account of her first day "on the job." This report is fairly typical. It is entirely understandable if one is nervous and a little apprehensive. It is more than likely that, as in this episode, what awaits the student teacher is a warm, friendly, interested welcome. Faculty members probably will be glad to have him as a new member of the faculty, and many of them will feel some professional responsibility toward him as well.

The assignment to a classroom for student teaching, therefore, means more than just reporting to a particular teacher at a particular time. It means becoming part of a school and of a school system. Indeed, it means becoming a colleague in a profession.

Center of the Stage: Appearance Matters

Seniors or graduate students about to embark on student teaching may be insulted when their college instructors tactfully try to introduce some simple

² Unless otherwise cited, anecdotal material comes from written reports by students and student teachers and from the authors' observations. All anecdotes are authentic.

comments about appearance. Such comments should not be necessary; student teachers are adults and, as such, ought to be aware of the minimum essentials of public dress. Unfortunately, the authors' experience with several hundred student teachers indicates that this kind of self-awareness is not instinctive. This is the first time in their lives that the majority of student teachers have been on public display for most of the day—the object of careful scrutiny by 150 or more observant, critical, evaluating adolescents.

This means that a student teacher must be self-conscious about those aspects of dress, manner, and style, which indicate that one is at ease with oneself as an adult. Such dress should also be acceptable to the school community. It is possible to dress tastefully without going to the extremes of either looking like "an old maid schoolteacher" or being a slave to conformity. The exotic, the avant-garde, and the relaxed, at-home, old-shoe appearance have their places, but not in the classroom, any more than they belong in a bank or government office.

The collegiate look must give way to the professional look. In one teacher-education program where student teachers observed themselves on video tape, one unexpected by-product showed up in follow-up research on the job: those who had seen themselves on television were noticeably better groomed!

The dress of the student teacher must reflect his new status as a professional. Many student teachers are self-conscious about their youth, since they are often only three or four years removed from the age group of the students they are now instructing. Dress should be chosen to accentuate maturity and competence. Lacking anything else to attract their attention, students look at the teacher. An individual's dress reflects his feeling about himself. An untidy appearance suggests an untidy personality, carelessness, even incompetence.

A School House Is More Than a Building

Most student teachers will be given a quick tour of the building by their supervising teacher or instructions to help orient them to their new environment. In a few instances a student teacher is trapped in the room, or rooms, in which he teaches at the beginning of student teaching and emerges only when his tour of duty is over. This latter situation is unfortunate, and one should be careful to avoid such entrapment. The school not only houses resources the teacher will need to use, but it is the world of his students as well. It is important for the student teacher to know what his students are exposed to daily, as one way of knowing what experiences, attitudes, and opportunities influence those he will be teaching. Is the building old, with obsolete staircases and dingy, noisy corridors? Is it a modern monstrosity with the look and layout of a particularly efficient and antiseptic prison? How long will it take to get from one corner of the school to another? Even the physical variation among schools is tremendous.

An excellent way to get a quick, yet impressive, insight into how a school functions is to do a "Shadow Study." As the name indicates, one becomes a shadow for a day. A student, preferably picked at random from one of the classes

to which the student teacher is assigned, is chosen. The day's program for this student is procured. Then the student teacher "shadows" him or her throughout the day. He is, in a sense, sitting in that student's chair for a whole school day, seeing the school as the student sees it, feeling the chairs as he does, responding to teachers and peers as he does. A simple form helps in making observations:

SUBJECT _____		GRADE LEVEL _____	
PERIOD: General description of classroom or setting (for example, the cafeteria)			
TIME: Recorded at 5-minute intervals	What subject was doing	What class and teacher were doing	

One should not let the subject know he is being shadowed, but often such subjects catch on. The teacher can then merely say that he is following a typical class schedule and it happened to coincide with the student's. The teacher should not, however, make it obvious that the subject is being observed. If possible the observer might talk with the shadow subject and ask him how school seems to him; which teachers and subjects seem most congenial; his goals in life, or any other pertinent, though not prying, question.

One such compilation of Shadow Studies³ was very revealing both to those who did the studies and those who have read the compilations. It is an excellent introduction to the school in which one will teach, providing a rare "student's eye" view of the school.

Becoming Acquainted with the Class

At first the role of the student teacher is that of an observer. He doesn't have to wait with "fear and trembling" that at any moment the resident teacher will suddenly say, "Here, Miss Jones, you take over this next lesson while I run to the office." This could happen, of course, but it is unlikely and not recommended.

The resident teacher, too, has a stake in seeing that the student teacher is gradually eased into the full responsibility of the classroom. If a student teacher gives confused instructions, or if the room dissolves into chaos, then the resident teacher has created added burdens for himself. So it is mutually advantageous that the student teacher spend some time in learning about the classroom, the course, and the students, before taking on independent responsibility.

Observing a roomful of adolescents is no easy task. Fortunately, many education students have the opportunity to observe in schools prior to student teaching. The usual observation experience in a "typical" teacher-education program

³ John A. Lounsbury and Jean V. Marani, *The Junior High School We Saw*. Washington, D.C.: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1964.

emphasizes learning about students. In his observations at the beginning of student teaching, though, the student teacher should not only observe to learn about students, but also to see what the teacher does with *this* class, which he will soon teach. He will want to learn how the unit of work is developed, how order is maintained, how roll is taken—and how all the other innumerable details of teaching are carried out.

During this observation period, he will try to see himself as the “teacher.” Sitting in an inconspicuous place in the room, he should try to get very clear ideas about some important and practical details concerned with teaching in *this* class.

There are several things the student teacher should note. Among them are:

General Approach Taken by the Teacher

Each teacher has his own “style” of teaching. Since the student teacher will be continuing where the regular teacher left off, it is important for him to know what kinds of learning expectations have been built up in the students. Do they expect to be quizzed on details? Or are they encouraged to think about broad generalizations? Are certain skills emphasized—spelling, reading, orderliness—or are they ignored in favor of other kinds of learning?

Classroom Routines

The details of classroom management are considered in a later chapter. However, early in student teaching the student teacher will want to be crystal-clear about basic procedures that simplify classroom routine. For example: How is roll taken? Is an absence list sent to the office? How is it sent? What records of attendance must be kept? How are previous absences, if excused, noted by the teacher? What happens with unexcused absences? How are supplies distributed? Who checks supplies? How much time must be allowed for these routines?

Classroom Rules

Some teachers have strict rules about certain behavior. Gum-chewing, for example, may be forbidden in one classroom. Other teachers may refuse to permit students to sharpen pencils once class has begun, or they may not permit students to go to hall lockers for forgotten work or materials. The student teacher will want to know precisely which rules have been made important by *this* teacher in *this* class. He may not like the rules, but he is in no position to change them.

Instructional Materials

It is, of course, important for the student teacher to have a copy of any texts that are used and of any accompanying course of study and to know what

other instructional materials are available and how they are organized and distributed.

These details may seem obvious. But it is one thing to observe obvious details and quite another to take care of them easily and efficiently. Uncared for, small details effectively disrupt the finest teaching. For this reason, resident teachers often ask the student teacher to undertake some routine tasks very early in student teaching. Taking roll, for example, is an invaluable "first task." Not only does this acquaint the student teacher with the procedures of taking attendance; it also helps him attach names to faces in the classroom.

A second task the student teacher may undertake early is the distribution and handling of supplies, equipment, and other instructional materials. It may look simple to get ten library books to ten different students or to distribute test papers or collect assignments. But unless he knows just what to do and what to say, the student teacher will create confusion with miraculous speed.

Observation

The student teacher comes nearer to the heart of teaching as he observes the general approach to subject matter taken by the resident teacher. From texts or other teaching materials, from the nature of the syllabus when one is available, from the type of past examinations, from the nature of current assignments, he will get a partial picture of what is being taught, how the teaching is organized, and how the effectiveness of the teaching is appraised. But the resident teacher himself remains the best resource.

During the first several days of observation there will be many questions about the approach to teaching in this class. Ask the resident teacher. Ask diplomatically. Ask at a judicious moment—but ask! Why was this aspect of the material emphasized while that was ignored? Why did the teacher spend so much time on one diagram but skip lightly over another? Why did he tell Jim his answer was good—when it apparently left much to be desired? Why did he cross-examine Jack, whose answer seemed quite adequate?

Observation during the first days of student teaching should be accompanied by the taking of many notes. An observation guide may be provided to direct note taking. Student teachers may consider this recordkeeping an unprofitable exercise, or worse. Actually, such exercises in observation are "busywork" only when the data are not used to develop insight. The writing down itself is an important discipline. Instead of having vague "feelings" about teaching, a person must make concrete statements about what is seen and heard. He must record actual behavior rather than shadowy impressions unsupported by evidence from the classroom. Then, inevitably, he will become more and more realistic in his appraisal of teaching.

Early in student teaching, make an appointment with the resident teacher to discuss the observation notes. It is wise not to leave such interviews to chance. A regular, scheduled appointment with the resident teacher—before school, at lunch, during the free period, after school—should be arranged and adhered to.

First Teaching

One student teacher described her initial teaching experience.

First big self-test today! Taught my first class, French II, 12:30 P.M., right after lunch. The morning was hectic, but I was very calm and collected after lunch. I felt strange on the other side of the fence. Last week I could see the teacher's position very clearly, but it's quite a different matter when you get up there and take a look from the other side. Time went by quickly too, but not quite as fast as I went through my lesson. I finished up all the material I had planned to cover before the period was over. However, I had expected a better response from the class. What I gave them today was supposedly not entirely new material, but they acted as if they had never heard it before.

They did cooperate though—they paid attention and at least tried. I did find that things don't come out as they do when you plan them on paper . . . maybe I was too overconfident?

The typical student teacher becomes impatient. He wants to try his own teaching skill as he begins to feel more and more prepared for the job. At the same time, the resident teacher is making judgments about the student teacher's readiness. Some resident teachers are more cautious than others. Some willingly let go of the class; others hold back for a longer time. Sometimes the resident teacher feels that the student teacher is not yet oriented to the classroom, and this is always difficult to accept. But, finally, the first teaching day does come. Probably it involves only a part of the full teaching responsibility:

"Tomorrow, why don't you prepare to give the assignment we have planned just before the study period?"

Or, "You can read out the quiz questions in third period and check the answers with the class."

The resident teacher may urge caution and a slow pace in initial teaching plans. "Stay with what you know and use methods in which you feel full security," is good standard advice. It might be valuable to have a motion picture, but can the projector be used without a mishap? What if the resource visitor turns out to be a poor speaker, or does not turn up at all? The student and resident teachers may decide to forgo the more dramatic activities at first for those in which they both feel confidence. The simple and the unpretentious will build skill surely and steadily.

The resident teacher will probably remain in the room during the first stages of student teaching. But the day will arrive when he leaves the room—and the student teacher is all alone with the class: thirty individual, recognized, unpredictable adolescents! Gradually assurance comes, and by the time several weeks have passed the student teacher will have full responsibility in at least one of the classes to which he is assigned. By the end of student teaching, he may well be teaching full time in an additional class or classes.

The second important element in the student-teaching experience is the re-

relationships among the student teacher, the resident teacher, and the college supervisor. The most successful student-teaching experience develops when these three people work together for common ends.

In many institutions the relationship between college and high school is a very close one. The student-teaching experience is a product of joint planning and effort. Some colleges have regular meetings with resident teachers to work out the steps in the induction of student teachers. In other institutions the contact between college and classroom is more formal and less intensive. Whatever the arrangement, the student teacher soon realizes that his position under dual supervision is unique in his experiences.

The Resident Teacher

For a moment, look at the relationship between resident and student teacher from the viewpoint of the resident teacher. One of the most trying emotional burdens of teaching is the feeling that no matter how well one does, he can always do better. Some students have been reached only slightly by the best teaching efforts. Others do not seem to respond to all—ever. Some are constant sources of puzzlement and worry. At heart, the teacher must have a humble view of his success. His satisfactions are always tempered by the knowledge that his teaching is never completely finished, never accomplished to perfection.

Resident teachers are selected because they are experienced and competent teachers: they have achieved a degree of skill and poise worth emulating. But even the most assured, most experienced teacher has moments of concern and self-doubt. So while he welcomes the student teacher, he often at the same time feels defensive under the fresh, and often critical, eye now scrutinizing his work. He knows that the neophyte usually brings high ideals to teaching. From his own experience, the resident teacher may believe that many of these high hopes are achieved, if ever, only after long years of working toward them. Yet the resident teacher knows it is pointless to say that to the student teacher. Instead, he must silently bear what may appear to him judgment by unreasonable standards; and in this sense then, the student teacher may pose a threat to some resident teachers. But there is another, more threatening, possibility. Sometimes a resident teacher honestly feels that he is not really abreast of the latest educational practices, or in touch with the newest scholarship in his own field. He may suspect that the student teacher actually knows more than he does in some areas.

Student teachers sometimes feel that their resident teachers are reluctant to have them try newer classroom techniques. This hesitancy may be motivated entirely by the resident's sincere belief that it is better for student teachers to gain confidence through tried and tested approaches before venturing into the new and unpredictable. But it is also possible that some resident teachers are motivated by defensiveness and uncertainty. The resident teacher may regard proposed innovations as a reminder that he has succumbed to a routine approach.

Rejecting the beginner's enthusiasm may enhance the resident's own sense of status and security.

On the other hand, many student teachers will find their resident teachers eager to see a new approach to content or method. Indeed, some teachers testify that the supervision of student teachers is very refreshing and contributes in an important measure to their own stimulation and renewed zest for teaching.

The student teacher very often does go to his assigned classrooms with definite ideas about how he will coach tennis, or teach "The Concept of Genetics," or "The Elements of a Balanced Diet." No one can say for sure, however, that every student teacher will get a chance to try out all his ideas. Some will; some will not. Whether plans materialize or not will depend not only on the competence of the student teacher but also on the feelings and attitudes of his resident teacher.

The complications of the relationship go further, of course. The student teacher will spend many hours observing his resident teacher. He will be favorably impressed by some incidents in the classroom and disturbed by others. Since he is, after all, a novice, he may find it difficult to understand why a teacher ignores certain kinds of behavior.

When Bill fell asleep in class for the third time, Frank Lindsey, the student teacher, began to get nervous. Surely the resident teacher, Mrs. Northway, would notice this time! It was touch and go whether Bill would even stay in his seat as his six-foot frame relaxed in all directions. But nothing happened. Just before the bell rang Bill woke up. He picked up his books as though nothing were amiss, got the assignment from the girl across the aisle, and sauntered out. Frank couldn't restrain himself. He waited until Bill had gone, then asked Mrs. Northway about the incident.

"Oh, yes," said Mrs. Northway, "I saw Bill asleep. I guess this is the third time this week, isn't it? Well, when you have taught as long as I have, you learn what to notice and what not to notice. Bill grew awfully fast during the last ten months—something like eight inches in all—and he's just exhausted trying to keep up with himself! I'm pretty sure that in a little while, when he gets enough food in him and learns how to maneuver all that new length, he will wake up!"

"What about discipline?" Frank asked. "Won't the other kids think he's just getting away with something?"

The problem posed by this particular student teacher is pertinent to those with little, or no, experience in teaching. The experienced teacher can justifiably ignore what may superficially seem to be a gross breach of classroom etiquette. But can a student teacher do the same thing?

Student teachers sometimes feel "caught" in a personality conflict with their resident teachers. What should a student teacher do if he finds himself at variance with his resident teacher? The following excerpts are taken from the log of Mary Land, a student teacher who had this problem.

November 9

After two weeks of student teaching, my nerves are really beginning to show. I feel like I am beginning to crack. I am physically sick. I have lost eight pounds, my eyes are bloodshot and have black circles around them. I don't want to finish my student teaching. I know definitely that I will not teach as a career.

I think my problem may be that I hate my cooperating teacher. There is something about her professionalism that makes me feel inferior. I feel she expects too much from me. I know I've tried my hardest for her and I have learned a vast amount about teaching from her. The grade I get in student teaching doesn't matter.

November 29

I have resigned myself to the rest of student teaching without much resistance. One reason, I think, is the fact that half the battle is won: student teaching is half over, and I feel satisfied to the extent that I can live happily with myself. I still feel that each day I have something to learn, an impression that I haven't gotten before. But most of the tension that I experienced the second week has been relieved. I feel that my analysis of my teacher and the entire situation has helped me to feel this release. I am still tired and still work very hard, but I feel it is worthwhile, and that there is an end.

January 15—Final Evaluation

... after being extremely upset for the entire weekend, I made my decision. I would go every day, do the things she wanted me to do, and come home. I would pretend to like her. I would not be nice to her. I never did feel any hostility toward the students. Probably that is the one thing that kept me going; I enjoyed them so much. After I no longer perceived my teacher as so threatening to me that I actually feared the outcome, I realized she knew I could get out of the hole. She simply was going to make me work up to my ability to get out. I feel very relieved that the whole experience is over, and my grade truly doesn't matter as long as I didn't fail. I do not agree with all her methods, but I see that her methods and practices are congruent with her personality, and they are very successful for her because they are congruent.

Clearly this is an extreme case, and such incompatibility of personality and teaching approach may be corrected if discovered sufficiently early in the student-teaching experience. It is instructive to consider the summary evaluation comments for the student teacher above as filled in by the resident teacher and the college supervisor.

The resident teacher wrote:

Miss Land has worked dependably as a student teacher and is qualified to teach. Her subject matter background is adequate for a beginner. She has been most receptive to suggestions for organization and planning. She likes students and is noticeably aware of their problems and anxieties. As is expected at this

stage of her inexperience, she has yet to show an enthusiasm that results in a challenging atmosphere in her classroom. She needs to develop more originality of presentation as well as a more dynamic approach.

The college supervisor wrote:

My estimate of the ability and personality of Miss Land is based on an acquaintanceship of approximately three years. During that time I have instructed her in a class in methods, served as her advisor, and had an opportunity to observe her student teaching. Miss Land is an attractive young woman who has a good scholastic record at the university. She is friendly, dependable, and cooperative. Her voice is somewhat low in volume, and she does not appear as dynamic in the classroom as she does outside of it. This may partly be because she was somewhat restricted in what she was able to try out in the school situation in which she had been placed. In my judgment Miss Land should become a successful teacher.

The College Supervisor

Clearly, the relationships between student teacher and resident teacher are complicated enough. But usually there is a third figure, the college supervisor, to consider. While some student teaching is entirely supervised by the resident classroom teacher, more often a member of the college staff also visits the student teacher at regular intervals. Many times the college supervisor has taught, or is currently teaching, the student in courses on curriculum and on methods of instruction in the student's subject area. Whether the college supervisor has taught the student teacher or not, he does represent the college in its effort to keep its teacher-education program in touch with the problems of the beginner. Fellow staff members at the college rely on him heavily for data on strengths and weaknesses in the preparation for student teaching. So the college supervisor will respect the candor of student teachers who confide, without fear of reprisal, their satisfactions and anxieties about the preparation they have received for teaching.

At the same time the college supervisor is a "resource person" for the student teacher. He knows curriculum trends in a given subject; he knows adolescents; he knows teaching methods; he knows instructional materials; and he knows evaluation procedures. Of course, not all that the college supervisor knows will be useful in any given classroom. The usefulness of his knowledge will depend on the kind of teaching and learning encouraged by the resident teacher. It will also vary with the ability of the student teacher to adapt this knowledge to his own emerging style of teaching.

Certainly, the frequency of the college supervisor's visits affect his ability to be helpful. He can make more specific recommendations when he knows the day-by-day progress of the student teacher's class. When he cannot visit as often

as he would wish, he may supplement his information with reports from the student teacher or with regular conferences with him.

A log book or student diary of experiences, maintained on a daily basis, can help fill in the university supervisor on what has gone on between visits. Often university supervisors will want to see previous lesson plans, which help them evaluate the present lesson in the context of previous work. It is also helpful to have a duplicate lesson plan of the day's work for the supervisor. By means of the lesson plan the supervisor can judge how well the student is achieving what he indicates he hopes to achieve. The expectations of the supervisor will probably have been made clear even before the student teachers have left the campus.

The student teacher, then, helps himself when he makes every effort to keep his college supervisor well informed.

It is only realistic to recognize that the college supervisor comes to appraise the student teacher as well as to help him. From the beginning, the student teacher must be clear about what that appraisal includes. He must prepare himself for the visits in terms of the evaluation he knows will be made and he must see that his resident teacher is equally aware of the way in which he will be judged.

It can now be seen more clearly that the student teacher is often the servant of two masters: the resident teacher and the college supervisor. The best insurance of support from both is clear and systematic exchange of information among all. Most of this communication can be assumed to be the responsibility of the two supervisors. But a wise student teacher will plan diplomatic checks to see that the communication continues to be regular and ungarbled.

At its best, the system of providing support from a college supervisor as well as from a resident teacher gives the student more direct assistance than he is likely ever to have again as a secondary-school teacher. Admittedly, the relationships are complex; but they need not be obstructive. On the contrary, if the student teacher does his part to make the relationships cordial and constructive, he will benefit immensely by the guidance they provide.

School and Community Resources

As one part of the induction process, the student teacher will be made acquainted with the services available through his school. Learning how these services function, how they are used by teachers or students, is an important part of student teaching.

The student teacher, because he is a student teacher and because of his relatively brief stay in the school, may or may not be able to use all the services. He must learn quickly which services it is feasible to use and what procedures make the services available. He must settle, then, such practical questions as how supplies are ordered (if he can order supplies); how students use the library (if library use is practical for this class and his teaching); how audiovisual materials are obtained and scheduled (if such materials can be obtained during his short stay); what information is in the counselor's files about a specific student (if student teachers are given access to these files).

It may be useful to prepare a check list of such practical questions during the first few weeks of student teaching. A standard list might be suggested, but each school and each subject has problems peculiar to itself. For example, some schools have audiovisual coordinators who order all materials. Other schools make this an individual responsibility. Repair of sewing machines is of no concern to a social-studies teacher; nor are the problems of transporting a band of any importance to a typing teacher. The student teacher's own list, developed with the help of his resident teacher and college supervisor, will serve him better.

What about the community? A student teacher often makes little use of community resources. Their use may involve long-range planning and a knowledge of the community impossible for the student teacher to obtain soon enough. The student teacher should, however, gauge how much he might do, given the time and the opportunity. It is useful to know, for example, that the local museum has some Indian artifacts that would be the source of a stimulating project for the bored genius in third period, if time permitted. Likewise, the budding scientist might have been assigned the task of interviewing the consulting chemist at the sewage-disposal plant. Knowing community possibilities and making some use of them, if only in a very small way, helps build resources for later use in full-time teaching.

Nor should the influence in the classroom of the general character of the community be overlooked. Student teachers may be so overwhelmed by the new tasks and problems within the classroom that they forget the significance of the outside world in their students' lives. Do they come from a stable and clearly defined community, or are they gathered together from mushrooming suburbs where no sense of "community" has yet been developed? If it is a city school, do many students come from apartment-house or rooming-house areas? Is the school in an economically deprived or slum area? If it is a rural school, are students from a prospering, or a marginal, farming area? The community setting makes a marked difference in the classroom approaches that can be profitably attempted.

Getting To Know the Adolescents in the Classroom

For many prospective teachers, the student-teaching situation is the first real opportunity to be an adult leader with a group of adolescents. The questions of first priority are: Can I get along with them? Will they like me?

The adolescents will be equally curious about the student teacher and will be evaluating him, just as he is making an estimate of them. Contrary to popular report, they usually do not aim to make life miserable for him. Most student teachers find that adolescents are more than ready to help, to give support, and to make the initial teaching experience successful.

Occasionally a class may make the student teacher a handy target for aggressions built up in other parts of the school day. It is only honest to state that some student teachers do have difficulty in establishing rapport with adolescents, however much they are assisted; others never do build any secure competence in any

part of teaching. This, of course, is one of the reasons for student teaching: it provides an excellent test of whether teaching is a wise vocational choice.

If these last sentences leave the reader somewhat disturbed and apprehensive, he should be reminded of the previous reassurance that adolescents are willing to meet student teachers more than halfway. Student teachers frequently report how the class "helped them out" when their college supervisor observed them. Incidentally, the same is true of the first year on the job. If a person has any knack for establishing initial rapport with students, they will be very patient as he learns, through his mistakes, how to increase his skill as a teacher. They are more likely to be with the teacher than against him.

Student Advice to a Beginning Teacher

Horse racing tips are allegedly better when they come from the "horse's mouth." The following are some tips that one resident teacher collected from her classes and presented to her student teacher:

Student A

1. Do not be really strict.
2. Give tests which are not hard, and not easy.
3. Beware of some of my classmates.
4. When you lecture, do it slowly so that the class can take good and complete notes.
5. Beware of a person's handicap, like mine. (Guess who wrote this!)
6. Let us change our seats in class (permanently).

Student B

Get out while you can. Teaching is surely one of the best ways not to win friends and influence people.

Student C

1. Don't be "overeager"—don't try to be too domineering, trying to catch everybody.
2. Don't come in on the very first day and start antagonizing everyone; start out with a smile.
3. Don't think this class is an all-important subject and that we are all enthusiastic about it. To us it's just another subject that requires study—although we do like it at times.
4. Don't give tests when we're loaded up with them, taking the attitude that all the others will just have to retract their tests. 'Cause they won't.
5. We're human beings, not machines! We can do just so much and no more though we should be challenged and working hard.
6. Be informal and allow for mistakes, exceptions, and so forth (all those human fallacies).
7. There are some who want to learn even though others may not. Judge the group by those who want to learn, not by those who don't.

8. Give a guy a break.
9. Make the subject interesting; use discussions and arguments—and debates because those always get everyone in the discussion—even the clam!
10. Enforce the rules and keep discipline, but don't overdo it!
11. Don't try to trick us—teach us!

Student D

Try and make the class period as interesting as possible. That is, cut down note-taking and show movies, slides, filmstrips—you know, interesting things. I don't mind taking notes, but Mrs. Doe's notes are too long and too hard to copy. So try and make note-taking easier. Also watch out for me 'cause I like to crack jokes and things like that. I also talk to the people around me, but only in moderation so as I don't disturb people. That's all.

BOB ADKINS.

P.S. I'll try to be good, but I can't promise any miracles.

Student E

Student teachers often come in to a school with a real strict, stern attitude. They come into a high school with a lot of college ideas. But remember we're in eleventh grade, not in college, yet. So often student teachers try to make us work like they had to in college. Or if not that, they tell us how easy we have it and how it was for them—don't do that, please!

Student F

Be flexible; be able to discuss another subject, or an interesting facet instead of being confined by the subject you planned to discuss. Smile. Oh yes: do not speak to the blackboard.

Student G

Advice to A Student Teacher: **VERY IMPORTANT:** Go over the quizzes and tests after they're graded so we'll know what we did wrong. Sometimes we get the same questions on one test that we had on a preceding one and still don't know if the answers are right or wrong. Let us go early to lunch. The lines get real long down in the cafeteria, and I like to have a lot of time to eat.

Student H

It seems to me that the best asset a student teacher (or any teacher, for that matter) could possibly possess is a sense of humor, and a technique of presenting the material in an interesting fashion. Since either you have a sense of humor or you don't, that takes care of that. Either you're interesting or you're not, that takes care of that, also. So I imagine that your success as a teacher has been predetermined at the time of your birth—what God gave you to work with. Therefore, if you are a flop, it isn't your fault directly, but the good Lord's.

The student teacher to whom these messages were given had an obvious advantage when she entered the classroom for the first time. In a way, she already

knew the students. The student teacher duplicated the comments and discussed them with her classes, creating an experience that made a good beginning for her student teaching.

Establishing Rapport

Students are curious about the student teacher as a person. They may ply the student teacher with questions—some personal, some embarrassing. These questions should be answered judiciously. They usually want to know about college or university life; they want to know why the student teacher chose teaching as a career; they want to know something about him away from school: is he married? does he have children? They want to know where the student teacher's home is and whether he likes the music they like, and a thousand other things. Such curiosity is usually friendly and natural rather than malicious. Adolescents, like the children they have so recently been, find security in the knowledge of familiar things about strangers invading their environment. Since the student teacher is often closer to them in age than the resident teacher, they may also feel freer to ask questions reflecting their own immediate concerns about the future.

Some reserve must be maintained in answering students' questions. One does not, either as a student teacher or as a certified teacher, speak with the same freedom he would use with adult friends. Personal life should be kept personal and private, but not so private that the outlines of a human being are obscured by a textbook and a flinty manner. Keep firmly in mind that students' interest in teachers is not hostile, and answers should be given in the proper spirit.

Rapport, of course, includes far more than skill in answering questions. It is a manner, a way of looking at people and speaking to them, a tone of voice, an attitude of genuine interest in others. Adolescents seek, from student teachers—from any teacher—an indication of sincere regard for them as individuals. Being ready to smile, saying hello in the hall, learning names quickly, remembering what gives them trouble or in what they do well, will aid immeasurably in establishing rapport with them.

Student teachers sometimes find it difficult to establish rapport with adolescents because they are honestly frightened of them. It is not easy to approach those who create fear with an easy and relaxed smile! The best cure for this fear is closer association with students. Casual conversations in the corridor, on the school grounds, at sports events will help. Helping with extracurricular activities also alleviates such fears. None of this is to recommend that student teachers try to be one of their pupils! One can enjoy adolescents as any friendly adult would.

"A teacher who doesn't have a sense of humor is really a drag, man."

Short and to the point, this view of a teacher's ability to laugh is perhaps one that should be framed on every teacher's wall. Repeatedly, students who are asked to identify those qualities they most seek in teachers place "sense of humor" high on their lists.

Honest laughter that springs from a source of mutual student-teacher recogni-

tion can help establish, or cement, classroom rapport. In order for this to happen a teacher must of course know when it is appropriate to demonstrate his sense of humor: to laugh at people is never acceptable; to laugh *with* them is not only healthy but desirable. Laughter that finds its cue in embarrassment, ridicule, or vulgarity is destructive—to individual values as well as to the climate of the classroom. On the other hand, laughter that says “*This is the human condition, and we’re all human*” is a positive force between students and teachers.

Obviously, though, teachers must be able to make the transition from the humorous to the serious, so that learning continues and nonsense or chaos does not supplant it.

Teachers who never smile . . . lose an opportunity to gain status as human beings, for the thought that after all “*Old So-and-So*” has a sense of humor or “*knows how to take a joke*” is one which makes students less inimical and teacher domination less unbearable.⁴

At a deeper, more personal level, teachers need to develop a sense of proportion regarding daily difficulties. The frustrations of working with so many varied human beings in the typical school day demands the ability to laugh—in order not to cry.

One additional and highly significant caution should be mentioned regarding efforts to achieve rapport: this may be the first time the student teacher has been taken behind the scenes in the lives of other people without their being aware of it. Consultations with other teachers and counselors about individual students will be a necessity; but it is also a necessity that all inquiries and comments be made in the spirit of gaining insight and understanding in order to work better with adolescents, not to indulge morbid interest in the lurid details of the lives of others. From these teacher conferences and from the cumulative record cards maintained as guidance files, it may be learned that Jane’s mother is institutionalized, that Bob’s father is an alcoholic, that Jim’s family is in serious financial difficulties. Temptation to gossip about such information and the students involved may arise. But it is imperative that student teachers adhere to professional ethics and never gossip about students. Extreme circumspection must be observed in places where teachers talk about any part of their teaching. Conversation carried on in supposed privacy may be overheard by some students whose presence escaped your attention. Remember: a teacher may recognize at sight about one hundred students, but there may be three or four hundred who know who the teacher is.

Success or Failure?

One student teacher phoned his supervisor at home the last week of his field work:

“You’ll never guess what happened Friday,” he said.

⁴ Willard Waller, *The Sociology of Teaching* New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1932, pp. 229-230

"My classes got three hundred signatures on a petition and gave it to the principal asking that he hire me next year."

Probably not many student teachers will have such dramatic incidents to clarify their feelings about teaching. But through this trial period, every student teacher should be engaged in taking a sharp look at his new role to see if it really fits; if it feels good "inside"; if it has potentialities for enduring satisfactions.

Student teaching is valuable not only for the new skills and insights gained, but for the opportunity to find an answer to the all-important question: Should I become a teacher?

A Returned Veteran Reflects on Student Teaching

Because of a last-minute change in cooperating teacher and subject area, I did not begin my resource unit until after the first week of student teaching. The unit was completed during the Easter vacation, and by this time I had some idea of what the students were like and some opinion as to what would appeal to them.

The topic was chosen by the kids from some alternatives proposed by me. My first problem was that I knew little or nothing about the stock market. Another problem was that the economics text was totally inadequate. The book appeared to be aimed far below the level at which the students were capable of functioning and at which they wanted to operate. Because of the success and enthusiasm I had gotten from using federal handouts in the field of money and banking, I felt that the use of the same type adult materials was indicated.

The unit is intentionally flexible. I felt that the daily newspapers would provide current examples of most of the points I wanted to illustrate. This proved to be true. Chrysler presented an offering of rights which caused both the price of the old stock and the price of the rights to act in the expected manner. The publicity given the alleged manipulations in Texas Gulf Sulphur illustrated the regulation aspect of the market. General Motors rose predictably just prior to the meeting of the board in anticipation of a split; and when the split did not materialize, fell to the old level. I was most fortunate in that my hopes of materials from current events worked out so well.

In general I was pleased with the result of the unit. Some of the points that I had planned to stress ended up being only lightly touched. On the other hand, I think that for the most part, the kids stayed enthusiastic because there was flexibility. If a discussion of the effect of current events on the market became more oriented toward the event than to the effect, so be it.

I was most fortunate in having as a cooperating teacher a fine gentleman with a great deal of common sense. He let it be known that if I wanted help or advice he was available; otherwise he left me on my own to sink or swim. This was exactly what I had hoped for, and I am sure that if I had wanted or needed more "mothering" he would have seen this and provided it.

As a result of this experience I have learned several things. First of all I have

reinforced my belief that teaching is enjoyable and that I am good at it. The hours spent in the classroom were a real pleasure and more than made up for the long hours of preparation necessary.

As I had anticipated, my experiences as a delinquent, a dropout (and a marine) were a great advantage. I was able to understand to some extent, the dissatisfaction and impatience that some kids feel. My experiences related many times to concepts under discussion. As an example, my tattoo pointed out the fact that at seventeen, judgment is not always fully developed. Here was an illustration they could understand and appreciate.

The teacher's lounge was a real revelation. I am firmly convinced that there are too many little old ladies in the classroom, both male and female. They complain about the kids; they complain about the parents; they complain about their fellow teachers; and they whine continually about the administration. Most of the complaints appeared to me to be completely unjustified.

As was pointed out in the university education class so clearly, if a teacher gets completely under the thumb of a supervisor, it is the teacher's fault. I would assume from my experience in the past and from my recent observations that if a teacher shows a need or even a willingness to accept this type of supervision, he will in all probability get it. On the other hand, knowing what you are doing, and being forceful and assertive about it to a certain extent, will prevent this smothering of individuality.

I went into this project with a great deal of practical experience in leading seventeen-, eighteen-, and nineteen-year-old men. The things I have seen such men accomplish, and their conduct in general, has given me a great deal of respect for this age group. This feeling was completely justified by these students. With very few exceptions, they responded to being treated as adults. They accepted and carried out responsibility.

My experience with young ladies in this age group has been limited and, that, only in years gone by. I was more apprehensive over this aspect of student teaching than any other. What would I do if one started crying? Fortunately this did not happen and by acting naturally, I managed to establish a very pleasant relationship with the girls.

In conclusion then, student teaching helped me immeasurably. As a result of this experience I feel confident that I can take over a class in any school in the country and begin to learn to be a teacher. After a great deal of hard work and study, both on subject matter (I found out how little I really know), and methods (in every class there were at least one or two that I didn't reach), and perhaps five years of experience, I am convinced that I can become a good teacher. (There are damned few of them around!!!)

Sometimes individuals may expect too much from student teaching. Although success in that experience is the best predictor of future success in teaching, some students who perform at a barely acceptable level have been known to mature into very good teachers. They are the "slow starters." On the whole, however,

a student who cannot perform satisfactorily in student teaching rarely develops the requisite skills.

One assumption of this book is that teachers are individuals who are interested in, and like, young people. It is possible, however, for a teacher to have these qualities and to behave in such a way that he contradicts his intentions. A teacher who makes most of the decisions, who does most of the talking, and who tends to be punitive toward students will have difficulty in creating close rapport with them. Generally, his ability to affect the values of young people will be limited.

On the other hand, a teacher who is open, rather than distant, who discusses classroom experiences with students and treats them with sensitivity will have extensive opportunities to affect positively the attitudes, understandings, and habits of his students.

In a study by Flanders,⁵ teachers' classroom behavior was classified as dominative and integrative according to the way in which teachers interacted with students. The study showed that:

THE INTEGRATIVE TEACHER

- Accepts, clarifies, and supports the ideas and feelings of pupils
- Praises and encourages
- Asks questions to stimulate pupil participation and decision making
- Asks questions to orient pupil to schoolwork

THE DOMINATIVE TEACHER

- Expresses or lectures about his own ideas or knowledge
- Gives directions or orders
- Criticizes or deprecates pupil behavior with intent to change it
- Justifies his own position of authority

Conclusions of the study indicate that dominative behavior on the part of teachers tends to encourage dominative behavior on the parts of students toward others, that students are easily distracted from schoolwork, and that students show more compliance to, as well as rejection of, teacher domination. On the other hand, students placed with integrative teachers show more spontaneity and initiative, make more voluntary social contributions, and participate in more problem-solving situations.

Although Flanders' method of looking at teachers' behavior, is limited in the sense that it measures only verbal behavior (see Chapter 5), it is deemed an appropriate way of determining a teacher's overall attitude toward his role; indicates the control a teacher exercises while teaching; and spells out many of the patterns of influence the teacher uses in classroom management.

The categories for analyzing teacher-student interaction present a variety of considerations that beginning teachers should examine with respect to their performance in the classroom.

⁵ Ned A. Flanders. *Teacher Influence, Pupil Attitudes, and Achievement*, Cooperative Research Monograph No. 12, Office of Education, U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare. Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1965, pp.1-23, 111-21.

Varieties of Student-Teacher Interaction

TEACHER TALK

Indirect Influence

1. *Accepts Feeling*: Accepts and clarifies the tone of feeling of the students in an unthreatening manner. Feelings may be positive or negative. Predicting or recalling feelings are included.
2. *Praises or Encourages*: Praises or encourages student action or behavior. Makes jokes that release tension, but not at the expense of another individual: nodding head or saying "um hum" or "go on" are included.
3. *Accepts or Uses Ideas of Student*: Clarifying, building, or developing ideas suggested by the student. As teacher brings more of his own ideas into play, shift to Category 5.
4. *Asks Questions*: Asking a question about content or procedure with the intent that student answer.

Direct Influence

5. *Lecturing*: Giving facts or opinions about content or procedure; expressing his own ideas, asking rhetorical questions.
6. *Giving Directions*: Directions, commands, or orders which students are expected to comply with.
7. *Criticizing or Justifying Authority*: Statements intended to change student behavior from unacceptable to acceptable pattern, bawling someone out; stating why teacher is doing what he is doing, extreme self-reference.

STUDENT TALK

8. *Student Talk-Response*: Talk by student in response to teacher. Teacher initiates the contact or solicits student statement.
9. *Student Talk-Initiation*: Talk is initiated by the students. If "calling on" a student is only to indicate who may talk next, observer must decide whether student wanted to talk.

SILENCE

10. *Silence or Confusion*: Pauses, short periods of silence and periods of confusion in which communication cannot be understood by the observer.

There is no scale implied by these numbers. Each number is classificatory, designating a particular kind of communication event. To write these numbers down during observation is merely to identify and enumerate communication events, not to judge them.⁶

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⁶ Adapted from Flanders.

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Balancing Power *the democratic classroom*

3

A popular misconception of democracy in the classroom is that it naturally and automatically results in chaos. Built-in to this misconception is the notion that students in a democratic classroom are free to decide, day by day, what will take place; that confusion and disorder reign; and that students are engaged in “artsy-craftsy” projects that have little or no relevance to academic content.

Such a conception is not one of classroom democracy, but rather of classroom anarchy. Arbitrary piecemeal activity taking place in confusion and disorder works directly against democratic principles.

The problem lies in what is meant by “democratic.” It is very difficult to frame a definition on which to agree in the only way that really counts: *in the way people act*. Nations use the word in very different ways. Similarly, educators have difficulty in identifying the democratic classroom or the democratic teacher. Part of the trouble may be that so few have ever experienced democracy in education.

When I arrived at Central High School, the principal assured me that I was going to see the most experimental and democratic class in the city.

I was taken to the classroom—isolated from others in the building—just before the bell rang to end class. The clamor coming from the classroom, with doors closed, was astonishing. As we approached the room, I could see students

through the glass panels of the doors as they milled about in the classroom. Two girls were dancing in the back of the room. The bell rang and instantly students ran into the corridor, slamming against the principal and me. None of them excused themselves; indeed, none of them seemed to notice us.

I was introduced to Mrs. Eris, who gave me a hearty handshake, spoke briefly about the necessity for teaching kids "the democratic way," and promptly abandoned me as she escorted the principal from the room.

Presently the bell rang for the beginning of the next class; and after several seconds many students wandered into the classroom, some of them punching one another, some holding hands, some putting cigarette packages away—all of them loud and unconcerned for their subject, the classroom, the teacher, and the visitor. After most of the students were inside the classroom the teacher reappeared, yelled, "Quiet, you kids" and, in passing me, said, "Sorry, I'm late. I had to have a smoke."

I don't think you could say the class ever began, anymore than you could say it ever ended. The students—who certainly appeared at least average in ability and who were from above-average socioeconomic homes—did exactly what they wanted to do, which was mostly gossiping and clowning. During the period, I saw these things: a group listening(?) to a record by Yma Sumac (I was told that because she is Peruvian and they have pyramids in Peru it was important to see a relationship between her and Egypt where they also have pyramids); individual students writing in textbooks (doodling and writing personal notes); a small group planning a bulletin board (they never did decide what its theme was to be); a few boys looking at magazines and comic books; a boy and girl who played courting games in and out of a closet.

Twice during the period, the teacher attempted to shout above the din, but quickly gave up and returned to whatever conversation she was involved in with individuals and groups. I was struck by how insignificant she seemed to be. Students responded to her in exactly the same way they did to one another: that is, with contempt and ridicule. Before the end of the hour, I left the room. No one noticed. I went out to my car and sat for several minutes contemplating my experience. All I could think was, "If that's democracy, we're in trouble."

Mrs. Eris¹ is correct in her statement that students have to learn the "democratic way," but her approach leads elsewhere: to alienation, contempt, ridicule, aimlessness, and irresponsibility, none of which characterizes democracy.

That democracy can, and should, be operative in education is based on the assumption that citizenship in a democracy demands practical, long-standing training in how to function in such a system. To deny students this training is to restrict their personal growth and thus to limit the resources of society.

A teacher who implements the curriculum by working with students in solving common problems and another one who implements the curriculum by allowing

¹ If you are unfamiliar with the Eris of Greek mythology, it may be enlightening to discover why the teacher in this anecdote is given that pseudonym here.

regimen to work its will on individuals may both believe they are developing a curriculum that meets democratic principles. Teachers of both kinds may be able to say with complete sincerity that they are laboring to develop democratic behavior. Both may be honestly convinced that they are democratic teachers.

Defining the Democratic Classroom

Although teachers are people of good will, they are not necessarily democratic. Good will is not synonymous with democracy. Let us look at two classrooms:

Mr. Furst thought of his students in Spanish II. He wanted to be certain they understood that language is a key to culture. Suppose he broached the subject of bullfights? He might fill in some of the outlines of this traditional spectacle. Then, having caught them up in the excitement of this, he might open up a number of alternatives to them for further pursuit. Some might want to see a movie he could obtain on bullfighting. Others might want to check out those newspaper accounts from *La Prensa* that he had in the file. Then the library had a number of short stories in Spanish. The old Mexican-American residents in South Town might welcome a group of students to come and interview them about their memories of the toradors of their youth. There would be other possibilities the students themselves would suggest. They could work up the final plans for the unit together.

Mr. Conley was also planning his next week's work. "Now," he said to himself, "we've just finished the first real introduction to irregular verbs. Let me see . . ." Quickly he picked up the textbook and checked the next chapter.

"Ah, a discussion of the passive tense. Well, I guess next week we'll spend time first on a review of the irregular verbs. It's so hard for those slow students who sit near the windows to remember anything! Then, after a quiz—I'll spring that on them so I can see who has really been studying—I'll go over the material in the next chapter. I guess they can do the exercises in class on Tuesday, which should keep them busy. They can do the paragraph translation by Wednesday, and Thursday we'll have oral drill. I'll use a spelling bee game so those who don't know their stuff will be really obvious. Then Friday—Friday is the day of the game and they'll be all excited, so I guess I'll show that short film strip and have a test ready to come about the last half of the period."

Both teachers are doing a job of planning. Both are acting with good will. But look at the difference! Mr. Furst plans with an eye to both his subject matter and his students, trying to find some meeting ground between them. Mr. Conley has his subject matter before him and tries to fit the students to it, even if he has to be punitive. He wants them to learn, but he uses means that may be humiliating or intimidating. It is unfortunately easier to be Mr. Conley. Mr. Furst has to be flexible, to be aware of the students, to have a great variety of teaching re-

sources at hand; and many of the resources mentioned require getting through, and around, much red tape. Mr. Conley can operate for weeks with a minimum consideration of student differences, with the barest essentials in teaching materials, and with no out-of-class preparation on his part.

Mr. Conley is certainly prepared without benefit of his students' talents, interests, or cooperative ideas; he is, in short, undemocratic. Mr. Furst plans to utilize the special abilities, interest, and ideas in his class. But does that necessarily make him democratic?

Like other teachers, Mr. Furst has knowledge, is an adult, is vested by law with authority, and is surrounded by the aura of the parent. These "authorities," both open and hidden, are important. They ensure Mr. Furst of a certain position of "upmanship" in society. With such credentials he could attempt to pass as the last word on what students need to know and how they should learn it in his classroom. In addition, the students had no say in choosing Mr. Furst to be their teacher. On the other hand, neither did Mr. Furst choose belligerent Tim or sullen Jane for his class. And yet Mr. Furst is a "good" teacher. The automatic "authorities" of teachers, reluctant subjects, and arbitrary leadership do not make for a democratic situation. Therefore, democracy needs to be redefined if it is to be legitimately linked to education.

Anthropologists and social psychologists have some light to shed on this subject. As Ruth Benedict has pointed out, there are many kinds of social systems that one can call democratic because each member of the group is able to live a good, protected, productive, individual existence. Yet they may look very different from our own political system of democracy.²

Democratic education must be considered primarily as a social system devoted to developing better human relations. If the needs of students are being met, if they are progressively better able to cope with their world, if they are developing increasing self-direction in the conduct of their own affairs, if they are able to seek more learning as a result of present learning experiences, then probably the classroom is a democratic one. The teacher who permits and arranges for these experiences is, then, a democratic teacher.

Freedom within Rules

A democratic classroom has an orderly procedure established; there are rules that apply to various activities, although such rules are not rigid do's and don'ts. They are rules that have evolved according to the demonstrated need of the students and they are enforced with equality and humaneness. If someone is giving a report, others listen; if a group member has an assignment, he must see that the assignment is completed because the group will need it. These, and similar, rules govern social living in any group and should certainly be expected in a classroom.

But what happens if the teacher establishes a rule that the students don't like?

² Ruth Benedict, "Recognition of Cultural Diversities in the Post war World," *Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*, 228, July 1943, 101-107.

In a science class, Miss Lynch stated that all of the class would have to finish every experiment in the unit being studied before anyone could proceed to the next unit. Three students finished very much before the others and spent a week in the library while the rest of the class caught up. But even at the end of the week, two students were still several experiments short. This meant postponing the next unit of work for another two or three days. The students felt that Miss Lynch's rule had been arbitrary and should not be applied to succeeding units of work.

Obviously, the teacher had a good reason for her decision. Some general class instruction would be necessary before the whole class could proceed to the experiments in the next major unit of work. It would be inefficient to give this instruction to two or three students at a time, and difficult to have supplies out simultaneously for a number of different experiments. However, the students also had a good point: the present rule benefited only the slowest students and penalized the fast ones for being ahead in their work.

"Why get your work done ahead of time, or even on time?" said the students. "You'll just have to wait for the others."

The democratic teacher discusses with his class the reasoning behind a rule and the possible problems that might arise from it, and requests from the class a more acceptable solution.

What if the rule is a school rule and such deviations and compromises are not allowed? The students may then be in no position to change the rule. In that case, the whole problem of rules and what to do about them should be aired. Why do rules exist anyway? In a game there are very definite rules, and these are what make the game. A person does not change the rules just because they put a temporary handicap on his side. In a democracy rules are used to ensure good order and fair play. Students need to make an objective examination of this function of rules in a democracy. In their examination they will discover that when a rule is outdated, or arbitrary, or is contrary to common sense and actually impedes the purpose it was designed to achieve, an orderly method of changing the rule should be sought. In this way, students may come to recognize that orderly change allows freedom within security.

Failure to provide ample time for students to discuss school rules, particularly if the rule or rules are ones about which students may build resentment or anger, is potential dynamite.

One junior high-school principal periodically orders boys' or girls' lavatories, or both, locked as punishment for smoking or defacing the facilities. His procedure has not reduced the number of such incidents. Moreover, the students are permitted to use the drinking fountains only if they have a pass.

Student protests, sit-ins, strikes, and demonstrations could have been avoided in many instances, had teachers and administrators worked with students on how to obtain orderly rule changes.

Rules are only one element of the kind of classroom security that produces a democratic atmosphere. Another element is a clear-cut recognition by both student and teacher of the other's role and areas of responsibility. The teacher who seeks to have a democratic classroom must not deceive his students into thinking that they have more freedom and power than he is really willing to grant. For instance:

Miss Willow was dissatisfied with the routine of the class that she had inherited in midterm from another teacher. In this class the schedule was: Read assigned chapter Monday and Tuesday, answering questions at end of chapter. Wednesday, discuss questions. Thursday, have more question recitation, then a short quiz. Friday, discuss current events. Miss Willow suggested a more active kind of learning situation, with projects, debates, different kinds of readings, and activities the students would suggest. After some talk in class, the students voted. The outcome was that they decided to keep the established routine. Miss Willow was quite annoyed and decided that the students would have to try things her way anyhow. The students were bitter about her previous lofty comments on democracy and freedom.

This teacher was not genuinely willing to let the class choose and yet she had provided the freedom for them to do so. The class had no security regarding the teacher's role in the class and so learned to mistrust her. The teacher in a democratic situation must be willing to take the consequences of the freedom granted. If the students cannot reasonably be expected to make a wise choice, through lack of necessary experience or knowledge, then obviously the teacher should not offer the choice.

Genuine Choice

It is clear that the democratic classroom allows choices, but among what kinds of things can students choose? First, the choices must be real. When people vote in totalitarian countries, they only vote "yes." That kind of "democracy" has no place in the classroom.

The concept of choice is essential to democratic teaching, just as it is essential to a democratic society. It is obvious that young people do not know all the consequences of their acts. The student does not choose whether or not to come to school—he has to come until he reaches the age of choice specified by the state in which he resides. It is all the more important, then, that teachers give him many opportunities to develop the ability to make wise choices in those social and personal areas where he does know the consequences. Otherwise, one essential democratic skill will not be developed.

Of course, the teacher, by virtue of age, training, experience, legal authority, and tradition, must establish some limits in choices of subject matter and method. In many areas it is the teacher who knows best. Obviously, it would be unwise to give young people the choice between learning the appropriate arrangements for a

formal dinner or the elements of a balanced diet; such a choice is unrealistic. The teacher may, however, discuss with the class the importance of relevant amounts of activities according to their needs and interests. Then the class may choose, perhaps one day for place settings, and six days on proper diet.

Suppose that a teacher decides to discuss with a class alternatives to a final examination: the teacher may explain to the class why a final examination is to be given. He may say, for example, that he needs this information about the progress that individuals have made in the class. However, the students may point out that there are other means of obtaining evidence about their progress. The teacher who seeks to be democratic has an obligation to think through with his students the common goal they have, and then to examine carefully the means available to achieve that goal.

If student needs are ignored or suppressed and only the opinions and demands of the teacher and the institution are followed, there can be no democracy. Thus the question "Do students have a right to vote against a final examination?" can be answered only when both teacher and students are informed of the needs, interests, motives, limitations, and goals they share. *The democratic teacher's function is to guide students so that they become increasingly able to choose among increasingly significant alternatives.* After all, the major decisions in life are above the level of studying one hundred spelling words versus learning two lyric poems. Out of the classroom, young people are choosing whether to disobey their parents and stay out with the gang and whether to spend their money on a new dress for an important date or save it for some possible college expenses three years distant. Such choices have broad implications for the young people involved; the democratic classroom provides essential experiences in developing the ability to choose intelligently.

The concept stated above should not be confused with the requirement that every time a decision is to be made, the whole class must participate. This kind of "democracy" is just as futile as no democracy at all. One can take a lesson from society itself; many decisions are so obvious, so insignificant, that people often do not know they are making them. A person does not consciously decide whether to put on his left shoe rather than his right shoe first. This is habit. Nor, in a classroom, must all learning stop while the class ponders the problem of whether books should be passed up the aisle from the left or from the right. The concept of orderly living can, and must, pervade the classroom. Where there are thirty youngsters and one adult to be considered, there are bound to be many problems in management of human patterns which require group decisions for order—and learning, and some which can be handled by one person.

Besides developing an essential democratic skill, the opportunity to choose means better motivation of the learner. He is involved from the beginning because he has a choice in the direction the learning will take.

The literature book used in Mr. McKenzie's tenth-grade English class started with Beowulf and progressed chronologically to modern essays and stories. The teacher had found that to start at the beginning of the book was a great handicap,

since the selection from *Beowulf* was one of the most difficult in the whole book. Therefore, at the beginning of the semester, Mr. McKenzie passed out the textbook and asked the students to look through the book carefully. Then he discussed the various sections of the book, pointing out some of the more interesting and important selections. He answered questions about the book that students raised. Almost a whole class period was spent in this exploratory experience. Toward the end of the period, Mr. McKenzie asked the class to gather in groups of four. Each group was asked to reach a consensus as to where in the text they would like to start. The reports were given to the teacher, who began the year's study based on the students' choices. Although no two classes wanted to start in the same place, Mr. McKenzie found that he covered the same ground eventually. But because he started with an area in which most of the students had some interest, each class was more amenable to following his lead into areas of lesser interest.

Choice here became a facilitating factor in learning. Choice meant active participation.

Even though students may have little interest in literature at the outset, the very process of choosing makes them evaluate, makes them look at the possibilities and seek something "good" about one or the other. Then, having chosen, the students develop a stake in the subject area; the students feel it is theirs, because they had an active role in selecting it. The teacher may of course find that in spite of this, student interest lags. The wise teacher will not then say, "What's wrong with you? After all, you decided to study this material." It does no good to flail the class for being unable to maintain interest in its own choice. Having once created a situation in which students make a positive choice toward some learning experience, the teacher must help in sustaining this interest. Merely allowing a class to choose, and then expecting the expressed interest to solve all further problems of motivation, is not merely foolish—it is infeasible. Nevertheless, by providing the springboard of choice, the teacher has at least obtained an initial impetus moving students toward worthwhile learning.

But, says the skeptic, "What if the students choose to do nothing? Isn't that one of the alternatives we must allow them in a democratic framework?"

Of course not. A person has no choice in a democracy about whether or not he will obey the law. Law is the framework that makes it possible for everyone to have maximum freedom. Without laws, we would be at the mercy of the whims and passions of anyone, and the most powerful and most selfish would destroy the others. Thus, in the classroom, students cannot have the alternative not to learn as a conscious choice, although often it is an unconscious decision that the teacher has to combat. Part of the personal obligation of living in a society is that one is educated in the ways of that society. The obligation of the teacher is to stretch every possible resource to bring this learning to every student. The teacher cannot let the student choose *nothing*!

Probably many teachers who would accept democratic procedures outside the classroom balk at allowing much choice in school, fearing that students would

choose not to learn. Certainly teachers must justify what they teach both psychologically and sociologically. Such justification reveals that a democratic classroom does not permit the decision not to learn; it does permit and encourage the development and the exercise of the ability to choose various paths to learning, various objects of study, various methods of evaluating learning, various goals toward which one may strive through learning.

Participation by All

It is obvious from the discussion of choice as a factor in the democratic classroom that class members must participate actively in the direction of learning. It is impossible to present genuine choices without an active response on the part of students. There are, however, even broader implications. Students not only enter into active choice regarding the class, its procedures, and its content; but they are moreover given an opportunity to increase their participation as they grow in skill, insight, and understanding.

A democratic teacher starts slowly, allowing his students to expand their area of activity as they demonstrate the ability to do so. Democratic ordering of society is one of the most demanding kinds of social control that man has ever devised. In a democratic classroom, students grow into wider and wider spheres of leadership and participation, although the amount and type of participation will vary from one individual to another. Some students are better able to lead, and these students are encouraged to assume more and more leadership; other students excel at solving problems, and these students are expected more and more to share this ability with the class.

Developing Leadership among Students

The teacher can nurture leadership among his students in many intimate work situations, with both small groups and large, short-run and long-range projects; and by providing many kinds of leadership and quasi-leadership opportunities. Some of these are comparatively simple: enabling the students to collect papers, for instance, or to read the notices, take roll, lead a discussion, report on special research, make plans for a trip, serve on an evaluation committee—right up the ladder toward full and significant leadership participation in the activities of the classroom.

But in its emphasis on leadership, the democratic classroom is concerned with all facets of participation. In a democratic classroom few students can hold back and be passive observers, having nothing to do with learning or with the teacher or with their fellow students. The teacher does not win active, full participation merely by requesting it or by punishing those who do not participate or giving checkmarks in his roll book for those who do. Rather, he must provide many opportunities for different talents to manifest themselves—choosing pictures for a bulletin board, maintaining the classroom library, becoming an expert on some special topic of personal interest related to the major content of the

course. These, and countless other, small opportunities eventually provide an avenue for every student to become a contributing participant—and perhaps even a leader! A democratic social order needs the intelligence of everyone to function; it cannot rely on the special expertise of a few leaders alone.

Development of Responsibility

The more students can affect the world around them, the more they feel responsible for what they do. The great complaint of adults about youth today is that "they have no feeling of responsibility." And how, one asks, can they acquire a feeling of responsibility in a world that allows them to make so few important decisions, that gives them so few important jobs to do? There is a direct relationship between participation and responsibility; one cannot exist without the other. This sense of responsibility is increased when participation is significantly related to the adult world. Too often students feel that there are two distinct worlds—the in-school world and the out-of-school world—and that the one that is more important is the out-of-school world. The teacher should therefore constantly seek those bridges between school and community which relate classroom learning to daily living.

Sense of Being Valued

The phrase "all men are created equal" points to a fundamental assumption underlying democratic society: that all individuals equally deserve the respect and protection of the social group. People are far from being equal in talents, in their contributions to society, in an infinite number of other characteristics. But in a democratic social order, each human being has a value simply by virtue of being a human being. Similarly, in the democratic classroom every student feels that he, as a person, is given due consideration. Each student recognizes that his needs, interests, motivations, and goals—wholly personal and subjective and unique—are considered in the total learning process.

A democratic classroom does not distribute its rewards on a narrow basis. It is *what is learned that is important*. Each person is given the maximum opportunity to achieve learning *in his own way*. True, these individual differences make democratic teaching difficult: For example, in many classrooms reading may range from fourth- to twelfth-grade level. The teacher who genuinely values each student as a person has an obligation to find reading materials suited to each level, and this whether in mathematics, science, home economics, or history. Only in this way can he help every student to a better performance.

What an individual feels about himself is the key to his happiness; if he feels that he is good, that others like him and his particular characteristics, then he is better able to deal successfully with the problems of home and job. The school has an obligation to give each person a clear view of himself, but in that process to help him feel that he is a good person. Delinquents among young people are often those students who feel that no one likes them and who, in turn, do not

like themselves. School failure is a public way in which people are told that they are "no good." Such a message becomes a self-fulfilling prophecy; the person then in truth does become less "good."³

The Experimental Approach to Learning

A final criterion that may be used in the evaluation of the democratic classroom is actually implicit in what has already been discussed. Democratic classroom procedure depends to a greater extent on the experimental approach. In this approach, *nothing is known until it is tried out.*

This thesis is accepted in the realm of athletics. A student is not expected to learn tennis by reading a book about it. He cannot know the game until he has had much contact with tennis rackets, balls, courts, rules. Democratic education utilizes this *inquiring approach* in dealing with other subject matter, as well. In United States history the experimental—and, therefore, democratic—teacher will develop an understanding of government in his students through intensive interviews in the field with government officers of all kinds, rather than depending merely for the discussion of government via the textbook. In a music class, radio, television, magazines dealing with popular culture, records, and music criticism in the daily paper become the basis for developing judgments about "good" music rather than the students' just absorbing the selections provided by the teacher.

Democratic education, it is clear, is not merely a matter of method and relationship, nor merely a matter of content; democratic education utilizes both content and method to achieve democratic ends. Some observers have attempted to see a difference here and to put either method or content in a prior position. But a careful analysis of what actually happens to the student in the classroom shows clearly that *the best method will fall far short of its fullest promise if the content is irrelevant to life, and the best content will be rendered ineffective if the method of instruction is inhumane.*

Evaluating the Democratic Classroom

It is possible to elaborate the criteria listed in the preceding section into an index against which the "degree of democracy" being exercised in any classroom can be measured. One warning, however, must be carefully heeded: Democracy in education is a *developmental concept*. Students, like people, are not naturally democratic. *Democratic behavior is learned.*

Learning democratic behavior is one of the most difficult of all learnings, since it demands so much of every individual in the way of selflessness, responsibility, objectivity, restraint, and passion. Many teachers must start with groups of students who are unskilled in democratic procedures and relationships. These classrooms will, of course, look different from those where democratic skills are well

³ Robert Rosenthal and Leonore Jacobson, *Pygmalion in the Classroom*. New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston, Inc., 1968.

in some fashion or other. In many ways, members show their dissatisfaction with the anarchic situation.⁴ Students express hostility and dislike for the teacher who shows no evidence of planning, is disorganized, and acts on the impulse or mood of the moment.

However, there are special "authorities," mentioned earlier, which surround and limit all teachers:

The teacher has legal authority; the students are compelled to attend school.

The teacher is in the classroom because of special knowledge and skill; the students expect to learn.

The teacher must grade the students.

The teacher is older.

The teacher is a quasi-parent.

These characteristics of the teacher inhibit the kind of group leadership that may emerge, by contrast, in voluntary groups such as the 4-H clubs, the Y-Teens, the Boy Scouts, and the like. The school as a cultural institution is by tradition authoritarian and students develop an expectation of "being run." This expectation of authoritarian procedures is a major problem for the democratically oriented teacher. In a voluntary group, of course, the expectation is different; the members, for the most part, expect to run the group themselves.

In ghetto schools students are especially used to "being run." The relationship of democracy and school appears to have little, if any, meaning for many of them. Indeed, the experiences of ghetto students too often suggest that hypocrisy is the strongest association they make in regard to democracy in the school.⁵ In "integrated" schools where democracy is supposed to be operative at all levels, minority students report that they frequently encounter intimidation, authoritarianism, and discrimination.

I forgot I was supposed to say "Yes ma'am" to her and was saying "ycah, sure," and so on. She said, "Have you forgotten about saying 'Yes ma'am?'"

I said, "No, ma'am, I haven't." She said, "Now let's not forget that." She works around to try to get the opinion of most Negroes concerning race. Then she will tell you her opinion and ask you whether you shouldn't feel the same way. Most of the time you don't.⁶

Our home economics teacher would have the new machines on one side of the room and the old on the other side and would put us into groups to let us use the old machines and the white girls use the new ones. And in cooking she would always give out the recipes and stuff and we would always get the small amount. And she would separate us into three groups, so that the three Negro girls were in the same group together.⁷

⁴ Henry S. Maas, "Understanding Group Processes," *Fostering Mental Health in our Schools*. Washington, D.C.: National Education Association (1950 Yearbook, Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development), pp. 289-290.

⁵ Helene Dawson, *On the Outskirts of Hope*. New York: McGraw Hill, Inc., 1968.

⁶ Chester Mark, "What Happened after You Desegregated the White School?" *New South*, 22, Winter 1967, No. 1, p. 12. Copyright, 1967. Southern Regional Council, Inc., Atlanta, Ga.

⁷ Mark, p. 12

Students quickly develop and reveal disaffection for teachers and schools that demonstrate contradictions between what society preaches and what they practice.

All students, but especially those who feel themselves the objects of discrimination, see little or no reason for learning when they become convinced that school is irrelevant to their immediate needs and goals and when they have no voice in determining the content and form their education will take. Protests and sit-ins are efforts to halt an "educational process" that is unrealistic and are now the inevitable result of the frustrations and animosities that students feel. Both colleges and secondary schools are encountering a point of view best expressed by Mario Savio, one-time leader of student protests at the University of California at Berkeley:

There is a time when the operation of the machine becomes so odious, makes you so sick at heart, that you can't take part; you can't even tacitly take part, and you've got to put your bodies on the gears and upon the wheels, upon the levers, upon all the apparatus and you've got to make it stop. And you've got to indicate to the people who run it, to the people who own it, that unless you're free, the machines will be prevented from working at all.⁸

It may be helpful to sum up some of the characteristics of a democratic teacher-leader. The teacher who is democratic:

- Gets genuine satisfaction out of seeing the group do for itself something that the teacher may previously have done (for example, lead a class discussion; set up rules for a field trip).

- Considers all learning as a means of meeting individual and social needs.

- Is willing to take a back seat as often as possible in order that students may learn how to exercise self-direction.

- Is patient with the seeming slowness of the discussion and joint-planning approach.

- Is sensitive to student needs for security and guidance, and therefore is not afraid of providing a firm touch as often as it is required.

- Recognizes the variety of human personalities to be found in any classroom; does not penalize students for their economic, racial, or ethnic background, or for their level of ability.

- Encourages creative thinking on the part of students; recognizes that any given unit of learning may be approached in an infinite number of ways.

- Is able to respond objectively to student aggression; recognizes that the leader should not overreact to personal attacks by young people.

Difficulties in Democratic Teaching

Why is democratic teaching so difficult to achieve in the average high school? There are a number of significant reasons.

⁸S. M. Lipset and S. S. Wolin (eds.), *The Berkeley Student Revolt: Facts and Interpretations*. Garden City, New York: Doubleday & Company, Inc., 1965, p. 163.

Institutional Traditions

As has already been mentioned, the school today has evolved from past eras when authoritarian relations were the rule in families, in government systems, in religious institutions, and in colleges and universities. Teachers who seek more democratic ways sometimes find that a number of their colleagues strenuously oppose their different approach. Classrooms have always been teacher-dominated; it is the familiar pattern. Students know exactly how to respond in such a situation. As in a caste or slave society, each person knows his place. But is a slave response what a democratic society wishes to implant in students?

Difficulties in Finding Significant Areas of Choice

Democratic education requires that young people be permitted to make significant decisions after group discussion, fact-finding, and evaluation. But because the traditional curriculum in many fields presents a course of study, from which is derived a seemingly logical sequence of subject matter, the teacher feels frustrated in finding significant choice situations. Students may make some decisions and choices regarding rules of conduct, but democratic learning is limited if this is all the choosing they are allowed to do. New curricula developments challenge the single-sequence approach. Disciplines are not monolithic structures built by all-wise men. Rather there are continual new data, new theories, and new structures. Thus, even in the content area, more choices are becoming available in every field.

Inability of Students To Accept Freedom

Very often, when students have been fully conditioned to a repressive school environment, the least deviation produces chaos. And democracy cannot flourish in chaos.

Frequently teachers, with the best will in the world, begin a class with democratic procedures without finding out first how capable the group is in self-direction and self-discipline. If order has always been imposed, students will not be able to discipline themselves without a very gradual induction.

In a class where very strict routines had always been followed—the read-recite-quiz sequence—Mr. Murrone, a student teacher, decided to introduce a small element of self-direction. He suggested that a bulletin board committee might take over the bulletin board, with contributions from class members, particularly those who had done poorly in the usual work. The idea, relatively simple though it was, took about half an hour of class time to convey. After he had appointed the committee, including two top students, Mr. Murrone was amazed to be bombarded constantly with numerous petty questions: What color shall we use? Can we use pins or thumb tacks? Who will put up the material? These students were so unskilled in self-direction that any teacher would have to move very slowly with them.

Too often, when a teacher does have such an experience, the conclusion reached is that the class just cannot have "democracy" in education. This is an unfortunate and unjustified conclusion.

Inability of Teachers To Share Control

It goes without saying that those who feel a need to be tyrants have no place in education. But it is not only the tyrant who finds it difficult to relax control. Teachers are often fearful about allowing their students too much freedom because "one never knows what the little demons will do next." This uncertainty is a genuine hazard; the adolescent is unpredictable: moody and stubborn one day, cheerful and cooperative the next. The teacher who is sensitive to these forces, as well as the one who suspects that the ill-repressed primitive urges in adolescents may at any moment get the upper hand, often feels compelled to exercise rigid control over the classroom.

Student Frustration and Aggression

Teachers who use democratic approaches to teaching are often surprised at the violent reaction of some one or two students who, for no obvious reason, become genuinely upset. It must be remembered that democratic procedures put a great burden on the individual to be self-disciplined, to adhere to group-made standards, to share his own talents with the group. Many individuals find these disciplines very severe, especially if a harsh and rigid parent or—surprisingly enough—an overindulgent one has hindered the development of an individual's self-control.

In a democratic situation, latent hostilities toward authority may come bursting forth; again, the teacher is likely to think that the fault lies in democratic teaching procedures rather than in the student's own social adjustment. It is true that democratic teaching may permit more direct expression of aggression than repressive teaching. Aggression is also produced under repressive teaching, but it is usually displaced upon scapegoats such as minority group members, other classmates, brothers, sisters, or parents. In a democratic situation the more permissive atmosphere allows the aggression to be directly focused on the teacher, who appears to be the source of frustration.

A teacher who wants to be democratic must be alert to signs of frustration. If too many props are taken away from students too soon and no adequate substitutes are provided, aggression may become widespread. For example, a teacher may suggest to students who have been used to working for grades that grades are not of paramount importance, but that what is learned is very important. Eventually, he may bring the group around to accepting somewhat more realistic methods of evaluation; yet, in a short time, he may find the class agitated and rebellious, complaining that they don't know how they are doing in their work. The new methods sounded good to them intellectually, but they were not emotionally meaningful. If a group is not used to self-direction, a careful and slow approach is essential.

Undemocratic School Administration

Teachers who are themselves subjected to authoritarian treatment may come to believe that students should be treated in the same manner.

Observers had noted a very tense atmosphere in all the classrooms of a suburban high school. Students were reprimanded for merely slouching in their chairs. Whispering to anyone was a cardinal offense. Later, a faculty meeting was visited. There, the principal treated the faculty as the students were being treated. He shouted at them, shook his finger at them, and in general conveyed the impression that the faculty were to be ordered around. Interestingly enough, most of the faculty seemed to feel that their school was much superior to all neighboring schools, that rigid discipline, limited textbook study, few extracurricular activities, and a "tough" marking system meant better education.

Teachers themselves may reject a principal who does not want to be the kind of tyrant described in the preceding anecdote and who tries to be democratic. "Why doesn't he tell us what he wants?" they say. Whether the attitudes originate with the teaching staff or with the administration, it is difficult to maintain democratic relations on one level without the active support of the other.⁹

Competition or Cooperation

Because the spice of competition is present in most social and work situations, individuals sometimes forget that the leaven of cooperation must also be present wherever people live and work together. In the democratic classroom, cooperation is regarded as a skill as important as competition. Furthermore, competition is encouraged between groups rather than exclusively among individuals. And the goals are of a different kind: competition is not for prizes or grades or special dispensations, but for higher achievement or for the more adequate solving of a group problem.¹⁰

Teachers sometimes feel that it is unwise if competitive situations are played down. They fear that students really work hard only to get ahead of someone else, not because of any real interest in learning. Such teachers view the democratic classroom with alarm, because in it cooperative enterprise accompanies individual competitive work; and the teachers do not see how it can result in the same learnings. What motivation will there be to get the grade? It is possible that democratic education will not produce the same motivation to get the grade; but it will produce learnings that are highly significant, based on different motivations. A democratic teacher may use competition when different groups have bulletin-board displays, and the class is asked to judge which group made the

⁹ Jean D. Grambs, "Do Teachers Want Democratic Administrators?" *Nation's Schools*, 46, November 1950, 40-41.

¹⁰ James S. Coleman, *Adolescents and the Schools*. New York: Basic Books, Inc., 1965.

best display. Will the group that made the best one get an "A"? Where a pervasive grading system is in operation, this may be necessary. A democratic teacher would strive to produce a situation where the recognition of what had been learned was all the reward desired; adult life rewards not with grades, but only with recognition for performance and the self-satisfaction of earned achievement.

The democratic classroom emphasizes cooperative skills because cooperation is crucial in the age of the hydrogen bomb and the intercontinental missile. Working with others is also essential in family life, in citizenship roles, and in work relations. Too few students develop this skill in secondary school.

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From Now to Tomorrow

the adolescent

4

Adults have been known to think that we might all be spared considerable trouble if children were born at the age of sixteen. But after taking a good look at one institution, the secondary school, populated almost exclusively by adolescents, one may have some reservations about the above statement. Of course, not all students in the secondary school are sixteen. But even among the sixteen-year-olds there is a marvelous variety—as there is among those at any other point within the adolescent years.

Some, adolescents according to their age, are certainly not adolescent by any other standard: they are children. Others are clearly adult. Seeking a norm within this range is a very elusive task for a secondary-school teacher.

Who is the adolescent? Is he dreamer or realist, sober citizen or juvenile delinquent, mischievous idler or earnest student, beatnik or square? He may be any of these, and more—even as other people are.

The secondary-school teacher spends his working life among adolescents. Therefore a high-priority task of his is to try to understand something of the hopes, fears, dilemmas, paradoxes, and potentialities of this period of development. As an adult responsible for the guidance and educational well-being of these complicated young people, how do you feel?

It is essential that one begin teaching with a compassionate insight into the vacillations of adolescence, tempered by an objective understanding of the

problems of youth in the troubled twentieth century. This kind of feeling and understanding imbues the whole educational process with an essential humanity.

The Person Is His History

The high-school student does not enter any class with a clean slate. He has already had six, eight, or nine years of schooling. He has learned much about teachers, about school, about himself.

School means different things to different youngsters. For some, elementary education has been a succession of weaknesses revealed and failures exposed. For others, school has been a haven from home or neighborhood pressures and problems. For many it has been a good place to learn and grow under patient and interested teachers. These past educational experiences inevitably affect the future. What can be accomplished by the secondary school in educating any individual student is significantly related to what learning experiences he has already had. Therefore a look at the elementary school as an institution, contrasting it with the junior or senior high school, will be profitable: no two elementary or high schools are exactly alike. But in general, any elementary school does differ in significant ways from any secondary school. For one thing, experimentation with the organization of the curriculum is more common in the elementary school. For example, classroom boundaries of secondary schools are apt to be more rigidly set, with the traditional disciplines more precisely defined as separate subjects. The program of studies in the average secondary school may be as separate and distinct as the periods of instruction, with little relationship maintained between English in the first period, general science in second period, and world history in fifth period.

The student in the traditional elementary school has spent most of the school year with only one teacher and with from 25 to 30 other students; in junior and senior high school he may have from five to six different teachers in one day and be in classes that place him in contact with between 150 and 200 students by the end of a day. Instead of having his belongings tucked into *his* desk in *his* room, he now shoves them helter-skelter into a hall locker. In contrast with the small well knit class he knew in Mrs. Johnson's fifth grade, in junior or senior high school he identifies himself as a "ninth grader" or a "junior," part of a large, impersonal group, many of whose members he has never met. The small elementary school, drawing on relatively homogeneous neighborhoods, is replaced in his experience by the large high school, fed by many neighborhoods and—often—diverse social and cultural groups.

Although the junior high school was designed to ease the change, it is still a difficult transition for many adolescents. The institutions are too different. The youngster moving from the protected environment of the elementary school to the more open, more adult, more impersonal world of the junior or senior high school has good reason to be alarmed at the prospect. The rules are so different—and there are so many to learn. There are so many more students! How can he ever learn their names? There are so many more teachers. The

student is likely to feel that whereas he was once an individual—known and called by name—he is now a cipher, a body filling a seat, a statistic occupying a line in a roll book. And the computerized schedule of some schools may reinforce this feeling.

A girl just entering junior high school recently reported:

I was afraid to go to the junior high school because of all the rumors. We heard that there would be "initiation" of the new students. The boys would have their faces painted red with lipstick and if they resisted, their clothes would be torn. The girls also might get the lipstick treatment, but the thing that bothered me most was that I had heard that some of the eighth-grade girls, whom I'd known in elementary school, were going to cut my hair. I've had long hair for years and am very proud of it. It would have been horrible if they'd tried to cut it. For weeks before school started I got ill just thinking of what might happen. Well, nothing did happen. We all watched for the other girls; one day they let the seventh-graders get on the buses first, and I guess it was because of the rumors. A few boys have been "initiated," but the girls haven't been bothered really. It must be much worse to be a boy.

Growing Up and Growing Older

Coming to Terms with a Changing Physique

In the junior high school there is no sharper contrast than that between the tall, almost-mature girl and the boy whose adolescent growth spurt has not yet occurred. For both such individuals, the factors of physical change are likely to be more important than any other single item in their lives. The girl may worry and fret about being too tall, too mature for her age-mates. The boy may be consumed with anxiety that he may not grow tall enough: as tall as "real men" are supposed to be.

Height is one indicator of maturity. Studies of early-maturing boys versus late-maturing boys have shown that this index of growing up has marked boys—and men—for life.¹

The more mature boys were more apt to be superior in athletic competition earlier and thus were on "the team," with the reassuring admiration of their peers. With the assurance of such admiration, the early-maturing boys could seek front stage—become president of the club, the class, the student body. Being more secure physically, they were not afraid of being rejected if they asked a girl for a date, or even just casually teased a girl in the hall. This kind of self-assurance extended into adulthood when these boys, as men, found the role of boss—whether it be foreman, manager, department head, or independent entrepreneur—congenial and satisfying.

The slow-maturing boys, lacking such physical signs of success, might give

¹ Paul H. Mussen and Mary Cover Jones, "Self-Conceptions, Motivations, and Interpersonal Attitudes of Late- and Early-Maturing Boys," *Child Development*, 28, June 1957, 243-256

How different life would have been for me if I had only been five inches taller. As I look back on it now, my major decision to take the college preparatory program really came about, not because I liked books any better than the other Polish boys from my neighborhood, but because the physical education teacher said, "Don't bother to sign up for the team tryouts, Mike; you'll never make it. We only take the tall boys."

I was so mad I could have hit him. But I knew he was right. In my anger and humiliation, I signed up for two foreign languages. To my intense surprise, I did well in both, although it meant long hours over homework when my former pals were either on the team or rooting at the games. So here I am, a pretty good linguist if I say so myself, with a good job in a company with overseas interests, so that I have traveled extensively. Am I sorry I wasn't five inches taller? I certainly was at the age of 14. But now?

In an earlier generation, the early-maturing girl was apt to be found hunched over, trying to hide the evidence of her developing bosom. She also tried to shrink her extra inches by slumping in the seat or hugging the wall to be as inconspicuous as possible. Today's teen-age girl propels herself (with the help of her mother and the cosmetic industries) into a precocious maturity. Padded bras hide the deficiencies of the late maturing girl. Efforts to seem older are more successful for the girl than for the boy. The greater freedom to be out of the house and to travel to other parts of the city or community; the "open dances" and social affairs sponsored by recreation centers, churches, and youth organizations make it far easier for the girl to find the older, more mature boy, with the result that she can ignore her less mature classmates.

The greatest agony of the growing girl is still, however, to grow too tall. Although on the average, both boys and girls are taller than many previous generations because of better nutrition and physical care, the code of the group still insists that the boy be taller than the girl.

"I don't know what I would have done if I hadn't met John; thank heaven for his 7 feet," said one high-school graduate, flashing her new engagement ring, as her 5 feet, 11 inches towered over her classroom teacher. "I'm just plain lucky," she went on, "that he is not only taller than I am, but such a really nice fellow."

One tall girl, unmarried at the advanced age of 28, can hardly complete a social situation without making some reference to her height. Such girls, like their counterparts, the late-maturing boys, may in spite of their dearest wishes find themselves professional women: teachers, social workers, librarians, executive secretaries, or government career employees.

In many instances the differences in physical development are simply differences in individual growth rates. The responsibility of the school to convey the critical data of individual development rates is clear. Such information can be conveyed in biology or general science classes; in health and hygiene classes. Moreover, this self-consciousness we have been discussing can even be considered as it appears in the poignant literature of adolescence. What is required is teachers who care.

At least one department of the school cannot escape the facts of physical change. The music teacher is acutely aware of the transition during the junior high school or early high school years. At any moment a boy's voice may plunge from soprano to bass. It is little wonder that he is often an uncooperative chorus member, when he cannot trust his changing vocal cords to come forth with the sound that he has for so long taken for granted. But the teachers of other departments should be equally aware of the impact of this physical change. Perhaps it accounts for Johnny's reluctance to answer a direct question. Perhaps it is why Tony maintains long, stubborn silences. And knowing this, a wise teacher does not hasten to charge such refusals to "adolescent insolence."

Teachers should remember, too, that many young girls in the early secondary-school years are experiencing menstruation for the first time. This is a major, and often traumatic, experience for them. They do not know how they ought to feel; they are embarrassed and yet secretly pleased at this indication of maturity. A new moodiness, a sudden self-consciousness, an unexplained absence, a reluctance to stand up in front of the class to report may all indicate a particularly feminine problem about which Western culture is very sensitive and secretive.

Most adolescents, no matter what their appearance or size, wish they looked different; were taller or shorter; could be changed in some manner to approach more closely the ideal so hypnotically portrayed by television and motion pictures. The content taught in the schools and the methods used to teach it can and should take cognizance of the basic physical changes occurring early in adolescence.

Gaining Independence from Adults, Particularly Parents

In American culture, a strong relationship is presumed to exist between financial and psychological independence. The adolescent craves psychological independence; he wants to make more of his own decisions, yet simultaneously he knows that for a long time he will be financially dependent on his parents. Few adolescents can get jobs bringing real financial independence. And the small income that part-time work may yield is likely to evoke unwelcome parental advice about how that money should be spent or saved. At the same time, the things that money can buy are assuming increasing importance to the young wage earner.

To be able to have a jacket like the others; to have the right kind of pants or earrings; to have thick-soled shoes or a "groovy" haircut; to be able to go

to the skating rink, the bowling alley, or the Saturday night dance—these are requisite to status in the group. But more important, they are symbols of desired psychological independence: the freedom to make one's own choices. Indeed, one of the satisfactions of having the "right" clothes and the other "right" things derives from the fact that they are what youths, and not adults, wish. Paradoxically, however, the adolescent can usually obtain these symbols of psychological independence only at the price of acknowledging financial dependence. All the "right" things cost money, and the principal source of money is the parent from whom independence is so much desired.

At this point, one more complication enters. The adolescent wants independence, but he wants it when he wants it. He reserves the right to demand dependence again at a moment's notice. The young adolescent who is making the first tentative excursions into a real world of his own still wants to be sure that there is a haven at home where he is cared for, considered, protected, and even babied. The parent who unwarily tries to push the adolescent out into the impersonal adult world may live to regret it. Despite the adolescent's earnest striving for independence, the home base remains important to him.

The high-school teacher enters the scene at this troubled time when parents and adolescents are trying to learn how to live with each other's shifting roles and needs. The pressures within the family inevitably affect what, when, and how the adolescent will learn during his school years. Emotions run wide and deep; it is simply not possible to shield school learning from the conflicts within the home. Feelings against parents may become feelings against teachers. Or, conversely, a teacher may become a refuge from a parent. Sometimes the phenomenon of the "crush," which may embarrass or even alarm a teacher, is primarily a symptom of dependency needs and a frightened seeking for security.

All this seems enough for an adolescent to endure, but there is more. It is not merely relationships with parents that become difficult; relationships with other members of the family may also constitute a source of disturbance. For example, a younger brother can tease unmercifully when Mike first starts to shave or Sally begins to primp and posture and blush. The adolescent is vulnerable—and other family members with needs of their own may bruise the sensitive spots.

Behavior in the classroom may be a reflection of all these disturbances. Unfortunately, the clues often escape the teacher's awareness. Adolescents are sometimes amazingly frank and at other times are completely inscrutable. Through a wise selection of subject matter, however, and especially through warm human relations, teachers can contribute much toward developing the adolescent's own insight and perspective.

Rebellion against the teacher's authority is frequently rebellion against parental authority. Classroom antics may be mistaken by the teacher as directed against himself as a person. Such behavior, disturbing although it may be, is part of the adolescent's struggle for maturity. The great mistake a teacher can make is to think that rudeness, insolence, flouting of rules, and the other ways adolescents test authority are personally directed against him. The teacher who

refuses to be "baited" by such behavior is in a better position to give guidance and support to the adolescent's uncertain reaching for independence.

Recent publicity to the adolescent rebellion, epitomized by the hippie culture in which youth seems to be escaping an organizational world they cannot abide, into the somewhat dubious freedom of a cult of complete individuality, has distressed educators, parents, and other members of the older generation. Although relatively few high-school-age students are participants in the hippie culture of the early 1970s, there are signs that it is attracting many of the younger age group. A significant fact, too, is that these rebellious youths are not from "disadvantaged homes" or youngsters who have been denied access to the good things of life. The middle- and upper-middle-class families and schools are the ones from which these young people are fleeing.

The phenomenon cannot be easily dismissed. Early rebellious youths ran away to sea; later generations worked for women's suffrage or joined socialist or Marxist underground groups. Currently they have joined protests and movements of all kinds. The previous rebellions at least had a quality of assertion, a positive move toward repairing an ailing world. The pathology of today's social scene appears that, rather than try to cure the ills of mankind, youth just wants to get away from it all: no more baths, haircuts, or conformist dress; no more days marked by regular routines. Parents wonder what they have done wrong when the girl or boy to whom they gave "everything" suddenly decamps for a "love-in." But the school must also question what it has done, or failed to do. Have the lessons been too irrelevant? Have youths been treated too anonymously? Have the institutional forms become so depersonalized that students are no longer seen as—or feel themselves to be—people? If the seemingly peculiar rebellion of the hippie generation is causing serious observers to wonder what is going wrong, serious educators may also wonder what role the school has played in all of this.

Finding a Place among Age-mates

Every observer of adolescence stresses the group-mindedness of this age. A good many parents and teachers deplore the gangs and cliques of this period in life. The peer group of the adolescent develops from the play group of a younger age and is carried on into adulthood. But there is one startling difference between the adult group and the adolescent group: to the adolescent, the "gang" or the clique is the most important constellation in the universe; adults recognize that there are others in which they can find companionable stars.

Now look at the school: junior and senior high schools throw the adolescent into association with a mixed mass of people of his own age. The one-hour period is the prevailing administrative pattern. How, in this brief time, can adolescents learn about one another? How can they find out who may make a good friend, and, just as important, how can they discover their own potentialities for friendship?

It is astonishing how well adolescents manage despite the institutional bar

riers placed in their way. The secondary school is their major social world—the place where, for the most part, they find their friendship circles. Sometimes, however, the gang for the boys or the small clique for the girls becomes too closed and too powerful. When this happens it may be a direct result of the lack of opportunity for fully exploring the friendship possibilities in the school. If we were to arrange more time for young people to meet one another, to work together, to become acquainted, to solve problems together, simply to talk together, perhaps the friendship groups would be more open and less hostile. Since the need to be part of a group seems to be almost frighteningly intense for so many adolescents, educators must look again at school arrangements that tend to have a separating and segmenting effect. (See Chapter 9 for specific ways of using group procedures in classrooms.)

Not all adolescents need the group quite so intensely. Educators and parents tend to be acutely aware of this need, partly because most adolescents have it and partly because this is a group-minded culture. But a significant minority of students in our secondary schools is relatively independent of the group. Perhaps some of these students are less mature than the majority, and the need to belong will manifest itself later—in college or on the job. Such young people should not be pushed into group life. Other adolescents may be satisfied by a rich, warm home environment. Still others may have a private personality and consequently do not, or cannot, need others very much. These can be helped to extend their friendship range, but they may never participate as actively in the demanding group life of the school as the majority of adolescents do.

Everyone has known adolescents who are driven to excessive conformity: is there a new mode in hair style? Then Joe hastens to follow it to the last long length. Is there a new "in" word? Then Joan repeats it *ad nauseam*. Some youngsters conform to the "tough" patterns of dress and speech and behavior. Others are slaves to the sophisticated veneer of expensive clothes and related social activities. These differences often, but not always, reflect different socio-economic levels and family backgrounds.

For the teacher, the fact of greatest significance is that group cultures also enter the classroom. The network of relationships within each group, and among different groups, extends into every period of the day. Consequently, the principle of pitting individuals or groups against one another is hazardous in practice. The wise teacher finds out as much as he can about the social structure of his class and school and uses it constructively to facilitate learning. More opportunities for free movement among groups are needed in the classrooms of the secondary school so that loyalty to, dependence upon, and influence by any one group will be lessened. The best hope of students gaining wisdom about their associations surely lies in providing them with fuller freedom to participate in many kinds of groups, as described in detail in Chapter 9.

nature of intergroup hostility and intergroup distance. It has not been easy for nonwhite groups to gain acceptance by the majority of Caucasian Americans. The black person today, with the double burden of discrimination and poverty, is unlikely to return to the comparative apathy and passive acceptance of previous years. He finds himself caught between a militant black nationalism and a yearning to be treated as just another person among others, no more and no less.

One teacher reports on the refusal of one particular school even to acknowledge that a problem exists in this area:

The principal was proudly showing me around his school, pointing out the language lab, the new addition to the library, and a roomful of new projectors of all kinds. On the wall of one hallway was a gigantic master schedule devoted to the extra period options for all students. They could choose two days a week among a variety of organized clubs or activities; other days they could choose remedial work or independent study in academic areas; and on Friday, there was "guidance." It was the problem of what topics should constitute "guidance" that I had been talking over with the principal. The idea was to have assemblies by grade level one week, and that the following two or three weeks the teachers would lead homeroom discussions of the topic. So far the faculty had agreed that they ought to have an assembly on family life, one on the wise use of money, one on vocations, and one on choosing the right college. We walked into the cafeteria—I had previously noticed that there were some Negro students in the school—and here in the cafeteria I observed that, with few exceptions, the Negroes all seemed to sit at certain tables. Rarely was a Negro student seated at a table with white students.

"Why not have an assembly on race relations?" I asked.

The principal replied, "Oh, we have no problems; they keep to their own group, and the other students prefer to keep to themselves. No, we don't have a problem of race relations, and I don't think our faculty would want it as a topic for an assembly program."

The group life of the adolescent, therefore, is complicated not only by his own social needs and interests, but also by the adult loyalties and divisions that engage him. He is not a truly free agent to choose among those in school for his friends and associates. His family and his peers from his own "group" tell him whom he should be seen with, whom he should avoid, and who are the enemies.

Establishing Heterosexual Relationships

The typical adolescent gang or clique is not composed of both boys and girls, yet it is in these groups that the adolescent learns most about how to behave with members of the other sex. All the folklore of how to behave on a date, when to neck and when not to, how to achieve popularity, is conveyed within the one-sex group. In America this is probably one of the most important functions of the adolescent group.

Today, dating behavior begins in junior high school. "Going steady" is a phenomenon observed in both junior and senior high school. The present generation seems to find it necessary to gain security early in the competitive world of heterosexual relations. The attitude appears to be that if you wait too long, you won't have much choice or will miss out on all the fun, or that being unattached is public acknowledgment that no one wants you.

Teachers of course know all this. Yet candid discussions of dating occur almost wholly outside the classroom. In a Senior Problems class, one may perhaps hear allusions to the family situation facing modern Americans; or an antiseptic discussion of the physiology of sex may occur in a hygiene or biology class. But, while the formal courses and organizational pattern of the school largely ignore this major awakening interest of adolescence, observant teachers can see manifestations of its pervasion all around them. The notes that are passed in class, the giggles, the clustering of boys and girls in halls and after school, the snatches of conversation which relay the latest gossip—all these graphically demonstrate how engrossing heterosexual relationships are. The observer may say that it is all very well to underline the importance of including an area now largely excluded from the school—but how shall it be done? Certainly no set program is ready at hand.

It is extremely significant to note the early age at which American youth marry. Has their education prepared them for this critical life decision? If so, where? When? And by whom was it done? Teachers, particularly young teachers, have not always solved their own problems in the area of heterosexual relationships.

For an earlier generation, a new era in relationships between boys and girls took place when the car joined the family circle. Youths were no longer restricted to the friendships of the boy or girl next door; once in a car the couple could evade adult surveillance. The automobile probably did more to revolutionize American culture than any other single invention of the twentieth century. Today, a similar revolution in what has been the expected, and accepted, relationship between the sexes is likely to result from "The Pill." The great deterrent, other than individual conscience, to premarital sexual relations used to be the fear of pregnancy, a fear that did not, however, keep the young male from exploring the illegal resorts available for testing out his masculinity. With the advent of this chemical contraceptive that is available to an enterprising girl, the consequences of experimentation with sex are no longer to be feared. But not all girls have access to "The Pill"; and the increased number of illegitimate children, at all social strata, attests to the diminished impact of social disapproval for premarital sex. Statistics regarding the rapidly increased number of girls who have had sexual experience before marriage point out a fact that should not be as easily avoided as it is. Most people would prefer to ignore the whole thing, except the worried parents of adolescents and adolescents themselves.

These social problems are not restricted to the out-of-school youth; they are the daily preoccupation of a good number of the adolescents in any secondary-school classroom. More young people are getting married before finishing high

school. Most young girls are married very soon after graduation or by age 18. Thus, during the years when they are making some of the most significant decisions about themselves, they are sitting in classrooms. The recurrent question must be asked, "To what extent does the school help young people in this most serious of their developmental tasks?" The future of the next generation is staring at the teacher in every high-school classroom in the country.

Selecting a Vocation

As early as the end of the seventh or eighth grade young people are often expected to make some important vocational decisions. At this time they must often decide whether to begin a college-preparatory pattern of courses or a terminal program leading to employment after high school. Sometimes the decision can be delayed a little beyond this point, but not much. Often, unfortunately, neither youngsters nor parents realize the significance of this decision. Indeed, neither parents nor youngsters may be completely aware that any decision has been made. And even if they do recognize the necessity of a choice, *they may not be sufficiently well informed to make a wise decision.*

In many other countries children are screened at an early age for either collegiate or terminal vocational education. Occasionally it is proposed that in the United States, too, choices should be made earlier or that the extent of education should be a matter, not of choice, but of aptitude. For the present however, the American system does leave the way open for fairly free individual choice. So long as that privilege continues, the responsibilities of the school to give adequate counseling are clear.

Toward the close of high school the burden of the future presses even more heavily on the adolescent. Some find that the choices made earlier were not made wisely. Others press forward, eager to get on with the business of adult living. Confusion besets still others, who do not see any goal clearly. Today's high school does try to give more vocational guidance than ever before. Vocational-interest inventories appear frequently; counselors give individual and group advice on vocational goals. Active recruiting is sometimes permitted for professions in which the need is acute, such as teaching, nursing, and engineering. Still, vocational guidance is not all it should be. Some groups are particularly disadvantaged. Girls, for example, are pushed in two directions: on the one hand, to use manifest talents in a career—but a "female" career like teaching or nursing—and, on the other hand, to forgo a career for a "job" as clerk or secretary while they wait for the "right man" to come along.

Black youth have had it drilled into them for generations that even with talent they could not hope to succeed in a white world. Many such youth in today's slums also feel that it takes more endurance, as well as more money than they will ever see, to make a vocational choice commensurate with their interests and talents. Yet at the same time pressure is being put on these young people to throw off the fears of discrimination and closed opportunities. Intensive programs in many places are pushing minority-group youth—which includes

American Indians, and first-generation Americans such as Mexican-Americans, Puerto Ricans, Cubans—toward realizing their latent potentials. Yet these same young people fear the competition of a market place or a college where, so they have often been told, they have little chance of success. What is the right decision to make?

Research studies reveal, also, that many very gifted people never fully utilize the talents they possess.² One of the more serious criticisms of today's secondary school is that gifted individuals are often neglected or become submerged in the mass of the mediocre. It is therefore not only vocational guidance that seems needed, but vocational stimulation: opening up for students (and their parents) the reality of the opportunities that do exist for those with special talents. To some extent then, each teacher should be a talent scout. He should try to recognize and to encourage the particular talents in his students, revealing the many avenues that lead out from his field of instruction. It is here, perhaps, that the schools have been least imaginative educationally and where they can do the most good for the future.

The very culture of the school may be such as to downgrade some talents while building up others. A boy gifted in art will have a harder time gaining recognition than will one gifted in physics; art is just not a man's role, many will say. The greatest chefs are men; yet it is only when a boy has left high school that he may drift into a job as a cook's helper and eventually gain some marketable skills. A whole new proliferation of jobs and job skills that an automated and computerized world demands has grave implications for school programs. Yet, while schools reluctantly see the demand for Latin fading, some are not overly eager to replace that subject with courses for computer programmers, key punch operators, kindergarten and nursery-school aides, or landscape gardeners.

There is little doubt that subjects now taught will soon become obsolete, at least in the traditional ways in which they have been presented. Correct oral English may be far more important, in an age where people use the telephone and where selling is a person-to-person encounter, than will knowledge of the proper form for a letter. Filling out forms will be a skill more vital than diagramming sentences. Accurate computation of credit charges will undoubtedly have more utility than figuring compound fractions. Determining voter qualifications will loom as more essential than knowing the capitals of all the states. And the list could be continued.

The vocational choices students make may be accelerated by social change, requiring earlier decisions for some kinds of talents; and at the same time many decisions regarding many other types of talents may be deferred until even two or three years after high school. General education may be more valuable than specialized skill training for whole categories of occupations, yet for some

² Edgar May, *The Wasted Americans*. New York: Harper & Row, Publishers, 1963; Eli Ginzberg, *The Negro Potential*. New York: Columbia University Press, 1956; Seymour M. Farber and Roger H. L. Wilson, *The Potential of Woman*. New York: McGraw-Hill, Inc., 1963.

youngsters the very early identification of a useful talent or skill may be of utmost importance. Nor is the world of work restricted to the here and now of the boundaries of the United States. Increasingly, skills in surplus here may be in short supply elsewhere: note, for instance, the need for agricultural specialists in developing countries. The occupational provincialism of the average secondary school remains a distinct barrier to the recognition of potential for many youths. The teacher can be a key to unlocking a new future.

You Only Grow Up Once

It would be nice if, as in some science-fiction stories, one could retrace one's growing up and make different choices. For as in Robert Frost's poem:

Two roads diverged in a wood, and I—
I took the one less traveled by,
And that has made all the difference.³

No two adolescents are alike; the choices they make will not have the same meaning for them nor lead in the same direction. Each student differs in what he brings to secondary school: his past educational baggage, his family's concerns about him, the values and codes of his culture and his group, his physiology, and his own sense of himself. Students differ in the amount of money spent on them, and for them; in the number of books at home; and the kinds of activities their families consider recreational. The streets a student walks, the programs he hears on radio and sees on television, the tragedies and successes of those near him—all of these make a difference. A student's race and religion, and how these affect his concept of himself, are also significant individual characteristics.

Social-Cultural Barriers between Teachers and Students

The older one grows, the less in touch he is apt to be with the significant pressures that surround the adolescent. The adult can recall his own trauma in these trying and exciting years. Yet the moral dilemmas of his own youth may seem mere childish problems to the adolescents facing a more tempting, more dangerous, more confusing world. Margaret Mead has suggested that every teacher ought to be able to obtain a leave from teaching at regular intervals in order to live directly in the "other" life of the community—the community that surrounds the adolescent outside of school.⁴

Teachers typically do not read the comic books or paperback books that are popular with adolescents; they do not always follow the same television programs; their movie-going habits are likely to be different. Often the barrier between

³ From "The Road Not Taken" from *COMPLETE POEMS OF ROBERT FROST* Copyright 1916 by Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc. Copyright 1944 by Robert Frost. Reprinted by permission of Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., and Jonathan Cape Limited.

⁴ Margaret Mead, *The School in American Culture*. Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1951.

adult and adolescent is accentuated because they live in different socioeconomic worlds. If the teacher represents the middle-class community, adolescents from lower economic groups may find the teacher's goals, motivations, and moral views far from meaningful. The whole system of rewards and punishments a teacher may use can be so removed from the world of the adolescent as to have no power to motivate at all. Teachers value ambition, perseverance, and the postponing of gratifications: many adolescents may not have so strong a sense of the promise of the future.

The Teacher and Group Differences

Very often people tend to judge others as inferior when they are merely different. The teacher of adolescents must bear in mind that he will teach all kinds of young people, most of whom will differ from him in appearance, speech habits, outlook on life, talents, and interests. And he cannot say that one group is, or is not, "better" than others.

Becoming a teacher means rubbing shoulders with all kinds of people. For many beginners this will come as a shock, but for others it will be one of the chief rewards of the profession. The larger the city in which one was reared, the more likely it is that one's friendship circle was defined by one's parents' occupational level and their professional or recreational interests. If one's father were interested in stargazing, it is likely that stargazers would be social acquaintances. The wives of doctors have organizations in which they meet and become friendly with other doctors' wives. "Army brats" or children of other servicemen are likely to feel more comfortable with others who have led similarly nomadic lives from one base or camp or assignment to another.

Teachers, molded by their own early experiences, are, like the youths they teach, the products of the informal social education of family, family friends, and community setting.

Unlike the teacher of a few generations ago, today's teacher, particularly at the secondary level, attends a large university or state college, often at some distance from home. Meeting others with intellectual abilities also means meeting people from other occupational groups with other interests and goals. But just the act of going to college means that the teacher is no longer comfortable with the less educated; his world, although widened in some ways, is restricted in others. There are more people who do not go to college than who do; but the ones the teacher will know best will be those who, like himself, have gone on to higher education.

The teacher of today has some unique experiences. If he is a young man he has probably had some contact with military life. He may not have been in actual combat and he may not have served overseas; but he has been sent back and forth across the country, been in regions of the United States new to him, and met a heterogeneous cross section of American youth. Many teachers may have found the experience unnerving and repugnant; others may look back with nostalgia on the particular freedom that goes with military life far from home.

Women teachers have not been so fortunate; they are more apt to be products of their home state, to stay nearer their homes when they go to college, and to return to home base if marriage has not intervened and fate sent them elsewhere.

Of particular significance, however, other than one's own educational biography, is that teachers, like other Americans, have usually been isolated from persons unlike themselves in religion, race, ethnic background, or social class. For men, even the two years of military service may not have made much of a dent in the insulation developed over years of being educated about group differences. Few people have known at all well individuals of other racial or ethnic groups. They are rarely close friends; in school these individuals seldom had prolonged contact with them and certainly did not visit in their homes or attend church with them. Thus members of minority groups (who, if they were all counted, would constitute a majority of our population) are unknown quantities. Most of us do not know how people outside our own particular cultural experience feel or act or live. Similarly, those from minority groups have had limited personal experience with the white Protestant "old-resident" group in the community and may feel ill at ease, outside it all, and even quite hostile and angry.

Teachers do not pick and choose their students, however. If there is a large black community, a significant number of recent immigrants from Europe or Puerto Rico, a neighborhood only recently built up of new residents from another state, the children from all these "groups" will enter the school. As a secondary-school teacher, one's feelings about these various kinds of people deserve close examination.⁵

The questionnaire on pages 72 and 73 may be useful in assessing feelings of separation from minority groups. Fill out both parts independently of each other; then compare your responses.

If there is a marked discrepancy between the responses to Parts I and II, implications might be examined. It has been found fairly common for students entering teaching to report that they feel relatively unemotional about members of minority groups as students in their classes, have strong feelings about such groups when it comes to living arrangements. The question to ask here would be, "If I couldn't visit with a feeling of ease in the homes of these people, how can I genuinely feel that my classroom attitudes toward their young people will be similar to those I have for all other youth?"

It is very difficult to divorce out-of-class feelings from in-class behavior. The teacher who recognizes these reactions will be a long way on the road toward reducing any negative impact his emotions might have on his students. If the prospective teacher feels so strongly about one or another group in the community that is the United States, that it would drastically interfere with his ability to deal with the group fairly, then it may be wisest to avoid teaching altogether.

⁵ Jean D. Grambs, "Are We Training Prejudiced Teachers?" *School and Society*, 71, April 1, 1950, 196-198.

Part I

Place before each of the groups named below the number of the statement that most nearly expresses the way you feel about having students from any of these groups in your classes. Regard these students as representing an average socioeconomic status (not the highest you have known, or the lowest). Do not leave any blanks.

1. I would go out of my way to ask for classes consisting of a large number of these students.
2. I would welcome students from this group in my classes.
3. I wouldn't care one way or another if students from this group were in my classes.
4. I'd rather not have any students from this group in my classes—at least not more than one or two.
5. If I had a class made up mostly of students from this group I would request a transfer or resign.

Number	Group
_____	1. Italian
_____	2. English
_____	3. Jewish
_____	4. Negro
_____	5. Scandinavian
_____	6. Polish
_____	7. German
_____	8. Catholic
_____	9. French

Number	Group
_____	10. Cuban
_____	11. Protestant
_____	12. Nigerian
_____	13. Canadian
_____	14. Japanese
_____	15. Mexican
_____	16. Chinese
_____	17. Hindu
_____	18. Baptist

Part II

You are going to be a teacher in a community new to you. You have to find a place to live; you are also going to be called upon to have some contact with the parents of the students in your class. Place before each of the groups listed below the statement that would most nearly express your feeling. Again, consider the groups as representing an average socioeconomic status. Do not leave any blanks.

1. If I needed a roommate I would be happy to share an apartment with a person of this group.
2. I would be glad to have people of this group as neighbors.
3. I don't have strong feelings one way or another about social contacts with people in this group.
4. I would accept a dinner invitation from people in this group, but I would prefer not to live in the same neighborhood with them.

5. I would be willing to discuss business with people in this group, but I would not be interested in any other contact.

Number	Group	Number	Group
_____	1. Jewish	_____	10. Italian
_____	2. German	_____	11. Nigerian
_____	3. Polish	_____	12. Japanese
_____	4. Baptist	_____	13. Canadian
_____	5. Negro	_____	14. Hindu
_____	6. Scandinavian	_____	15. Protestant
_____	7. Mexican	_____	16. Cuban
_____	8. English	_____	17. French
_____	9. Chinese	_____	18. Catholic

Prejudice has no place in the classroom. The obligation of the teacher to society is to provide open educational opportunity for all. One's own feelings will interfere with this task if he himself is blind to them. Understandably, it is not easy for us to deal with a mixed class if all our experience has been with only one group: how does a Negro feel when one discusses slavery? Can one discuss religion objectively when there are Catholics and Jews in the same class? How about the problem of the immigrant in the United States when José and Francoise and Mohamud have foreign-born parents who do not even now speak English?

For the sensitive teacher, these problems are acute. One way out is to avoid all controversial areas. Tolerance is not discussed because it means discussing prejudice as well, and someone might inadvertently step on someone else's toes. This is the ostrich approach. And it doesn't work.

A recognition of group differences does have a place in the classroom. With teacher guidance, young people can learn not only to accept themselves but moreover to accept others who are not like themselves. Schools have become increasingly concerned with this problem, not only because failure to accept difference prevents full personal development, but also because failure to accept difference leads to tension and conflict between groups. And when there is tension and conflict there cannot be education.

The United States Supreme Court decision outlawing segregation in schools has focused national attention on the larger problem of amalgamating many different social and cultural groups in the school. Thousands of teachers, and many thousands of youngsters, are still in the process of moving from a segregated school situation to an integrated one. It is therefore imperative that every teacher be clear about the feelings and attitudes he may have toward groups other than his own. Otherwise he may unwittingly interfere with free, full, and equal educational opportunity for all.

It is difficult, in the early 1970s, to imagine the great social crisis that gripped many areas of the country following the 1954 Civil Rights Decision of the Supreme Court. Many of the events have become history; it seems rather strange that white students can feel as acutely disturbed as Coles describes in *Children of*

Crisis because two Negro students are enrolled in their school. A white senior comments:

She ruins every class she's in [referring to the one Negro girl in his classes]. We're not the way we used to be. Everything is so silent a lot of the time, and we're wondering what will be the next move. One or two sit near her, but mostly she's surrounded by empty seats, and no one will work with her in the lab, so the teacher helps her out. We don't know whether we'll have our regular graduation picnic and dance, or whether she's going to ruin everything. You look forward all those years to the last one, and then you get tough luck like this. I don't know what we did to deserve this.⁶

The harassments of the Negro high-school students who entered a Little Rock high school in 1957 made that small city's name a byword all over the world. By 1967, this same school not only had several hundred Negro children, but some Negro teachers. The students do not mix socially and remain isolated from one another in the cafeteria and in school activities, but the fact that the Senior Ball was attended by a number of Negro graduating seniors with their dates caused no significant comment by anyone.

It is indicative of the times, however, that the struggle to develop "color-blind" education has not yet succeeded. The issue of race enters into many local, state, and federal programs related to education. Racial tension has disturbed many communities and erupted into massive violence or sporadic clashes. The notion of "business as usual" within the school may in a great measure account for the lack of change of attitude on the part of the larger community. Although factual racial desegregation has taken place in almost all communities, interracial hostility and distrust flourishes. Is it the business of the school to prepare young people for a more rational view of the differences among people? Does the school have more to do than just teach foreign language, mathematics, and other academic or nonacademic subjects?

Many teachers, both black and white, feel it is imperative that they discuss the touchy problem of race relations openly and forthrightly with their classes. Other teachers feel the problem is one of the larger community and not their responsibility at all. Some would delegate the responsibility to only one area of the curriculum—social studies—and claim it is not a logical part of instruction in other subjects.

The pressures on the schools to move away from a purely academic regimen are growing, and future teachers may well want to be cognizant of the changing definition of the role of the school in some places. Disturbed by the alienation of youth, by the apparent lack of real education in contrast merely to getting good scores on college entrance tests, by the very militance of youth themselves, and by the increased knowledge about human motivation and human history plus the impact of world wars and vast technological advances, schools and individual teachers are more than ever likely to feel it necessary to study with their students the pressing social, philosophical, and ethical problems of the day.

⁶ Robert Coles, *Children of Crisis*. Boston: Little, Brown & Company, 1967, p. 130.

The social distance, however, that exists between the middle-class, intellectual-oriented, and intellectually able teacher and many of his students who are intellectually uninterested and from different class levels, remains one of the continuing barriers to education for thousands of youth. Instead of recognizing that different cultural experiences have produced different motivations and expectations, the middle-class teacher is too apt to consider students to be projections of his own motivations and expectations. He thus punishes students who are not interested in a grade, without knowing that, if the content were significant, they would want to learn the material without concern for a grade. Similarly, teachers often err in ignoring the peer code which, in more cases than we can afford, rejects the student who adopts the teacher's valuation of learning: working hard and getting good grades. Coleman, in dissecting the culture of the school, has suggested that the school might capitalize on the virtues of group effort and apply these motivations to academic learning in order to incorporate adolescent cultural values with those of the school.⁷

Another perceptive analyst of the culture of the school, Friedenberg, suggests that the very rituals and rules of the school are such as to push out of school many of the most creative and endowed with leadership potential, while at the same time forcing those who do remain for the whole course into a passive and debilitating conformity.⁸

Psychological Barriers between Teachers and Students

When the teacher stands before his class he appears as the symbol of all teachers. He is not just any adult; he is a teacher. All the attitudes and feelings and anxieties that students have built up in the past about teachers will influence their reaction to any particular teacher.

Although the teacher may be secretly somewhat afraid of these adolescents, at heart he does want to be a friend. What kind of picture does the term "teacher as friend" convey? Students can appreciate and respond to teacher interest, to the fact that a teacher seems to like them and even to appreciate their "corny" jokes. But is this friendship? Friendship implies a mutual exchange of confidences; and while students may confide deep troubles, hidden ambitions, and personal secrets, always between student and teacher stands the inescapable fact that the teacher is the teacher. The flow of confidences is therefore inevitably a one-way exchange.

As a teacher, he is responsible for grading and marking. He must constantly judge how the student is performing. He may have to fail some students. He assigns awards; he gives recognition; he punishes misdemeanors.

Teachers serve as a "social conscience" for the student. No matter how much a teacher may sympathize with adolescent pranks and misdeeds, he is obligated both by society and by the students' needs to judge such behavior by

⁷ James S. Coleman, *Adolescents and the Schools*. New York: Basic Books, Inc., 1965.

⁸ Edgar Friedenberg, *Coming of Age in America*. New York: Random House, Inc., 1965

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⁶ Robert Coles, *Children of Crisis*, Boston: Little, Brown & Company, 1967, p. 130.

enjoyed. The teacher will have to resign himself to seeing only slight clues of student appreciation and rarely having the students actually express how they feel.

"How can I tell whether the students like me?" is a recurrent worry of the beginning teacher. The reassurance that students do like us is essential to the teacher's own sense of self-worth, but students will not often tell a teacher he is liked. Student teachers often get more feedback regarding the students' real feelings toward him as a teacher; the certified teacher must usually infer from student attitudes how well he or she is liked.

In the search for reassurance, some teachers may go to extremes in winning student approval. In almost every school there will be one teacher whose popularity with the students is only a degree removed from undesirable familiarity. In trying to make sure that students will like them, some teachers are guilty of one or more of the following:

- Overgrading students when their work is clearly not adequate
- Dressing sloppily in the mistaken notion that this is being informal
- Using colloquialisms in speech that are appropriate for teen-agers but not for teachers
- Allowing students to call them by their first name or by nicknames
- Confiding in students: talking about their own personal problems before the class or with groups of students
- Helping or permitting students to break rules under the impression that this will help the teacher win the students' favor
- Agreeing with students in criticizing other teachers or the school administration
- Gossiping with students about their personal lives and that of school personnel; hinting in class about personal incidents relating to individuals in the class which are known to the teacher
- Making personal comments to students about their appearance
- Joking with students on their own level

The preceding actions reveal a lack of security. Students appreciate a teacher who is genuinely interested in them, who is not a "stuffed shirt" or a prude, but they insist that adults act like adults.

The marks of approval which students do give to teachers are often subtle, but these are the crumbs upon which a teacher must feed his need for approval. Students may offhandedly comment, "Say, that was sort of interesting stuff we talked about today," or, "Why don't you give us more tests like the last one—I really did good on that." Or, "At least you're not boring like that last teacher we had in biology." Students may casually wander in before or after school for chats about all kinds of relevant or irrelevant things: a sort of indirect way of saying that this teacher is all right to talk to. These may be the only ways an adolescent can indicate his approval without losing his place among his peers.

It is unfortunate that, as schools are now organized, the beginning teacher soon finds that there are two opposed groups: the teachers and the students.

accepted standards. Society expects the teacher to convey accepted moral values and behavior patterns to the young; a teacher who did not do this probably would not last very long at his job. This support of an adult value system extends even to the kind of language and usage which is considered proper in the school.

This dilemma is acutely summarized by Juan Gonzalez, a Puerto Rican living in a tenement area of New York City:

Then there's another trouble. It's not really the language—most people know English. But you see, like even I do, it's the slang. You know, like instead of saying "officer," I say "cop." It's sort of something that gets into your head.

Like, if you are used to saying, "I ain't going to do that," you know, and you go out into the street and that's all you hear from the people. "I ain't gonna do that, I ain't gonna sit over there."

Well, you go to school and the teacher says you aren't supposed to do that, the boys think she is crazy. I'm not going to go out in the street and talk like that. They won't believe me.

You know, in school you learn words and you read Shakespeare and you can't talk like that. There's some kid, he might know all of Shakespeare by heart, but when he gets out into the street, he can't talk to his friends like that; he can't talk to anybody.⁹

The teacher's dilemma here is a real one: if he fails to correct the student in class, will he be considered weak or soft by the students? If he does correct inappropriate language, will this make the student keep still and refuse to work? If he stands as a guardian of what is proper and good, in both language and conduct, can he ever expect his students to share their problems and concerns with him?

Some of the ways in which teachers expect students to talk, if carried over into the home, would call down the ridicule of parents and playmates. Yet, in the classroom, other students would be shocked if the teacher did not correct consistently substandard usages. Since he functions as a social conscience the teacher is apt to find that the students will not share with him the experiences that society outlaws.

Yet, although the teacher must exercise authority, must grade his students, must pass on the cultural standards of good and bad, he can still be the kind of person who helps, who understands, who offers sound advice. In return, the teacher can expect loyalty, support, and the kind of affection which is built from respect and admiration. The major satisfactions of teaching are long term. They come from watching students grow toward responsible maturity; from seeing one student change his view of himself from a failure to a person who can succeed; from seeing another in a happy marriage; and from hearing now and then, perhaps indirectly, how he once helped.

While they are still in school, students are wary of their praise for teachers. It is too much like "apple-polishing" to tell a teacher how much his class has been

⁹ Charlotte L. Mayerson (ed.), *Two Blocks Apart*. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1965, p. 73.

- essays focuses on youth and thus is particularly valuable for the secondary-school teacher. Erikson always has something worth saying.
- Friedenberg, Edgar Z. *Coming of Age in America*. New York: Random House, Inc., 1965. A disturbing and challenging study of the kinds of values youth gain as they are educated in the secondary schools of America. The problems used for gathering the data are included in the appendix; it might be valuable to try these same questions on the youth in one's own locality.
- . *The Vanishing Adolescent*. New York: Random House, Inc., 1959. This small book is well on the way to becoming a classic statement regarding the breakdown of generational steps leading to maturity. Note: The comments are limited mostly to boys, and for an interesting reason.
- Goodman, Paul. *Growing Up Absurd*. New York: Random House, Inc., 1960. The writings of Goodman, along with those of Friedenberg, have been of great significance in stimulating a new look at educational processes and their effects upon young people.
- Grambs, Jean D. *Intergroup Education: Methods and Materials*. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1968. Presents methods for teachers in helping to deal with intergroup differences. Includes extensive annotated bibliography.
- Knopka, Gisela. *The Adolescent Girl in Trouble*. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1966. Extremely useful report about girls who are in trouble, and some of the psychological processes that may account for this; one of the few books that attempts to present a theory about how girls develop as differentiated from boys.
- Kovar, Lillian C. *Faces of the Adolescent Girl*. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1968. Descriptions in depth of the varieties of responses girls can make to their environment, taken from case studies in several hospitals for disturbed young people. May provide valuable clues for the teacher.
- Muessig, Raymond H. (ed.). *Youth Education: Problems, Perspectives, Promises*. Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1968 (1968 Yearbook of the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development). Excellent overview of the current state of secondary education from a variety of viewpoints.
- Rosenberg, Morris. *Society and the Adolescent Self-Image*. Princeton, N.J.: Princeton University Press, 1965. Reports a research investigation of the ways in which adolescents gain an idea of who they are. Valuable data for the teacher.
- Storen, Helen. *The Disadvantaged Early Adolescent: More Effective Teaching*. New York: McGraw-Hill, Inc., 1968. Particularly useful for junior-high-school teachers in areas with students from deprived backgrounds, especially urban.

Open war may be declared where the gulf becomes too wide, with students flagrantly disrupting school routines, destroying school property, and in extreme cases even attacking teachers. Usually the war is a more subtle one, although the fact that there are enemy camps is not lost upon either side. Unfortunately, such a concept of role relationships means that one side must win; and with power on their side, the teachers are bound to triumph. How many students are marred for life because of this unequal and inappropriate conflict one cannot say, but it is fairly certain that the conflict between students' needs and teachers' demands has pushed many young people into a life of despair, disorganization, and defeat by the larger community. Jails and many beds in mental hospitals are filled because of the failure of the school to work with adolescents, rather than against them. A beginning teacher would find useful the classic description of the problem of the teacher code versus adolescent code in Willard Waller's *The Sociology of Teaching*.¹⁰ Although written in 1932, the description, except for some minor details, unfortunately holds true for today. But with teacher education giving increased emphasis to the social psychology of education, it is possible that adult defensiveness may give way to a genuine educational partnership between youth and their mentors. And youth do want wise, adult teachers to give them useful and supporting guidance and relevant information that will provide them with the means to deal with the complexities of their current and future roles.

It is important to remember that adolescents do like school. They may complain at great length, but study after study shows that most of them are genuinely glad to be in school, that they like their teachers, and that they even enjoy much of their schoolwork and recognize its value. Most adolescents, too, are grateful for the help, interest, and guidance that teachers give them. They are more likely to do as they are asked, to obey a reasonable request, to respond to a friendly and interested adult, than they are to act like junior hoodlums.

RECOMMENDED READING

- Coleman, James S. *Adolescents and the Schools*. New York: Basic Books, Inc., 1965. In this book a creative research sociologist who has long been interested in the schools presents challenging ideas regarding how the secondary schools may become more effective educationally.
- Committee on Adolescence, Group for the Advancement of Psychiatry. *Normal Adolescence*. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1968. Psychiatric analysis of what might be expected of "normal" adolescence. An excellent reference, particularly for those with minimal psychological background.
- Douvan, Elizabeth, and Joseph Adelson. *The Adolescent Experience*. New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1966. A prime reference that uses research findings as the basis for penetrating insights into the adolescent growing up.
- Erikson, Erik H. *Identity, Youth and Crisis*. New York: W. W. Norton & Company, Inc., 1968. The writings of Erikson regarding the developmental stages of growth have influenced all who work with young people; this new collection of
- ¹⁰ Willard Waller, *The Sociology of Teaching*. New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1932.

- Glynn, Carolyn. *Don't Knock the Corners Off*. New York: Coward-McCann, Inc., 1963. An adolescent coming to terms with herself in an English free-tuition school. Especially interesting since the novel is the work of a fifteen-year-old girl.
- Gordon, Richard E., Katherine Gordon, and Max Gunther. "Children and Adolescents," *The Split-Level Trap*. New York: Bernard Geis Associates, 1961. Growing up absurd in the suburbs, through the eyes of psychiatrists.
- Gregory, Dick. *Nigger*. New York: E. P. Dutton & Co., Inc., 1964. Part of this candid autobiography is concerned with the comedian's adolescent years in the Chicago ghetto.
- Griffith, Beatrice. *American Me*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1948. Fictional accounts balanced with a sociological study of Mexican-American teen-agers living in Los Angeles during World War II.
- Herndon, James. *The Way It Spozed to Be*. New York: Simon and Schuster, Inc., 1965. A junior-high-school teacher reports on the problems of working with young adolescents in a "disadvantaged" school.
- Hinton, Susan. *The Outsiders*. New York: The Viking Press, Inc., 1967. A book aimed at adolescent readers, it nonetheless reveals adolescent concerns, especially regarding life-styles. Slum teen-agers versus upper-middle-class ones in Tulsa, Oklahoma. Interesting also since it is the work of a seventeen-year-old novelist.
- Hulburd, David. *H Is for Heroin*. New York: Popular Library, 1952. Actual account of the experiences of a sixteen-year-old drug addict.
- Kayira, Legson. *I Will Try*. New York: Bantam Books, Inc., 1965. The incredible, but true, story of the odyssey of a boy from an African village to an American college.
- Killilea, Diane. *With Love from Karen*. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1963. Biography of a cerebral palsy victim whose determination and courage enable her and her family to triumph over her handicap.
- Kirkwood, James. *Good Times/Bad Times*. New York: Simon and Schuster, Inc., 1968. A novel depicting life in a New England boys' prep school. Interrelationships of students and teachers reveal typical as well as atypical adolescent and teacher behaviors.
- Knowles, John. *A Separate Peace*. New York: Crowell-Collier and Macmillan, Inc., 1959. Life in a New England prep school in which a young man realizes responsibilities of friendship which lead him to a greater awareness of self.
- Malcolm X. *The Autobiography of Malcolm X*. New York: Grove Press, Inc., 1965. One of the most moving and significant autobiographies of the martyred leader of the Black Separatist movement.
- Mayerston, Charlotte Leon (ed.). *Two Blocks Apart: Juan Gonzales and Peter Quinn*. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1965. Life in the same neighborhood, but not in the same community. Graphic and absorbing demonstration of the polarity of ghetto and middle-class lives told by two boys in their own words.
- McCullers, Carson. *The Heart Is a Lonely Hunter*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1940. An adolescent girl views the racial and social tensions of her small, Southern town.
- . *The Member of the Wedding*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1946. Identification and loneliness—and ultimately the beginning of self-acceptance—are the strains of this beautifully written novel of Southern small-town life.
- Miles, Richard. *Angel Loves Nobody*. New York: Dell Publishing Company, 1967. Describes undercurrent racial crises in a large heterogeneous high school. Some-

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- Anderson, Margaret. *The Children of the South*. New York: Farrar, Straus & Giroux, Inc., 1966. A teacher reports on the impact of school desegregation in one of the first shattering public exposures: Clinton, Tennessee. Particular emphasis on the youths themselves.
- Armour, Richard. *Through Darkest Adolescence*. New York: McGraw-Hill, Inc., 1963. Humorist Richard Armour's tour of No Man's Land and how to survive the trip.
- Berger, Michael. "Dear Mike. . .," *This Magazine Is About Schools*, 2, Winter, 1968, Issue 5, 36-50. Address: P.O. Box 876, Terminal "A," Toronto 1, Ontario, Canada. A series of letters that reveal in direct and honest terms the concerns of late adolescence.
- Bradford, Richard. *Red Sky at Morning*. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Company, 1968. An Anglo adolescent grows up in a Mexican-American mountain community during World War II.
- Brannum, Mary. *When I Was 16*. New York: Platt & Munk Company, Inc., 1967. Eighteen women recall what life was like when they were 16, from the turn of the century to the 1960s, with "then" and "now" pictures of the women.
- Brown, Claude. *Manchild in the Promised Land*. New York: Crowell-Collier and Macmillan, Inc., 1965. An autobiography that tells in frank terms a young man's struggles in the slums, through reform school, and finally into law school.
- Cather, Willa. *My Antonia*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1924. The hardships of adolescence on the frontier farmland of Nebraska.
- Coles, Robert. *Children of Crisis: A Study of Courage and Fear*. Boston: Little, Brown & Company, 1967. Some particularly perceptive chapters on adolescents, black and white, who participated in various aspects of school desegregation.
- Crane, Stephen. *The Red Badge of Courage*. New York: Dodd, Mead & Company, Inc., 1957. (Other editions available.) The classic American war novel, which although dealing with the Civil War, raises essentially the same questions about war as those confronting contemporary youth.
- Deilulio, Anthony M. "Youth Education: A Literary Perspective." In *Youth Education*, Raymond H. Muessig (ed.). Washington, D.C.: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1968 (1968 Yearbook). A good bibliography of literature focusing on adolescents.
- Dreiser, Theodore. *An American Tragedy*. New York: Liveright Publishing Corporation, 1925. (Originally published by Boni & Liveright, New York.) In part, a depiction of a young man revolting against the poverty and piety of his Midwestern family.
- Ellison, James W. *I'm Owen Harrison Harding*. New York: Doubleday & Company, Inc., 1955. A "cocky" teen-ager passes through a series of in- and out-of-school adventures that lead him to understand something about himself and life.
- Farrell, James T. *Studs Lonigan*. New York: Vanguard Press, Inc., 1935. Especially interesting in this trilogy of lower-middle-class American life in the period of 1912 through the 1930s is *Young Lonigan*, which depicts the adolescence of the hero in which he carefully assumes the role demanded by his peers.
- Frank, Anne. *The Diary of a Young Girl*. New York: Pocket Books, Inc. Now a classic of growing up, in addition to being a revelation of the tragedy of the Jews during World War II.
- Gibson, Althea. *I Always Wanted To Be Somebody*. New York: Harper & Row, Publishers, 1958. Tennis champion Gibson recalls her life—and its turning point in adolescence—from ghetto to fame.

- Glynn, Carolyn. *Don't Knock the Corners Off*. New York: Coward-McCann, Inc., 1963. An adolescent coming to terms with herself in an English free-tuition school. Especially interesting since the novel is the work of a fifteen-year-old girl.
- Gordon, Richard E., Katherine Gordon, and Max Gunther. "Children and Adolescents," *The Split-Level Trap*. New York: Bernard Geis Associates, 1961. Growing up absurd in the suburbs, through the eyes of psychiatrists.
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- Griffith, Beatrice. *American Me*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1948. Fictional accounts balanced with a sociological study of Mexican-American teen-agers living in Los Angeles during World War II.
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- Hulburd, David. *H Is for Heroin*. New York: Popular Library, 1952. Actual account of the experiences of a sixteen-year-old drug addict.
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- Killilea, Diane. *With Love from Karen*. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1963. Biography of a cerebral palsy victim whose determination and courage enable her and her family to triumph over her handicap.
- Kirkwood, James. *Good Times/Bad Times*. New York: Simon and Schuster, Inc., 1968. A novel depicting life in a New England boys' prep school. Interrelationships of students and teachers reveal typical as well as atypical adolescent and teacher behaviors.
- Knowles, John. *A Separate Peace*. New York: Crowell-Collier and Macmillan, Inc., 1959. Life in a New England prep school in which a young man realizes responsibilities of friendship which lead him to a greater awareness of self.
- Malcolm X. *The Autobiography of Malcolm X*. New York: Grove Press, Inc., 1965. One of the most moving and significant autobiographies of the martyred leader of the Black Separatist movement.
- Mayerson, Charlotte Leon (ed.). *Two Blocks Apart: Juan Gonzales and Peter Quinn*. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1965. Life in the same neighborhood, but not in the same community. Graphic and absorbing demonstration of the polarity of ghetto and middle-class lives told by two boys in their own words.
- McCullers, Carson. *The Heart Is a Lonely Hunter*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1940. An adolescent girl views the racial and social tensions of her small, Southern town.
- . *The Member of the Wedding*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1946. Identification and loneliness—and ultimately the beginning of self-acceptance—are the strains of this beautifully written novel of Southern small-town life.
- Miles, Richard. *Angel Loves Nobody*. New York: Dell Publishing Company, 1967. Describes undercurrent racial crises in a large heterogeneous high school. Some-

what overdramatic, but shows school as minority-group students may well perceive it.

Motley, Willard. *Knock on Any Door*. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1947.

A Chicago slum adolescent is torn between a life of crime and a life that his better instincts encourage. Ultimately he murders and is executed.

Neufeld, John. *Lisa, Bright and Dark*. New York: S. G. Phillips Co., 1969. The difficult story of an emotionally ill girl whose teachers "don't want to get involved."

O'Neill, Eugene. *Ah, Wilderness*. New York: Random House, Inc., 1933. Family life, centered, in this instance, around an adolescent boy who discovers something about the different kinds of love.

Petersen, Len, "Desert Soliloquy." In *Ways of Mankind*, Walter Goldschmidt (ed.). Boston: The Beacon Press, 1954. A Navaho youth reflects on the feeling of being torn between life on the reservation and the pull of the Anglo world.

Portis, Charles. *True Grit*. New York: Simon and Schuster, Inc., 1968. A fourteen-year-old girl seeks revenge for her father's death on the frontier of the 1870s and demonstrates her ability to compete at an adult level.

Potok, Chaim. *The Chosen*. Greenwich, Conn.: Fawcett Publishing Company, 1967. Describes the adolescence of two Jewish boys and the religious, as well as personal, crises which they faced. Unusually well written. Also, provides insight into Orthodox Jewish beliefs.

Salinger, S. D. *Catcher in the Rye*. New York: Little, Brown & Company, 1951. By now the book of fiction dealing with the twentieth-century American adolescent.

Smith, Betty. *A Tree Grows in Brooklyn*. New York: Harper & Row, Publishers, 1947. An adolescent view of family life in the early 1900s.

Stegner, Wallace. *Wolf Willow: A History, A Story, and a Memory of the Last Plains Frontier*. New York: The Viking Press, Inc., 1966. Recollections of life in the 1920s on the Plains.

Van Leeuwen, Jean (ed.). *A Time of Growing*. New York: Random House, Inc., 1967. Eighteen short stories about adolescent girls from authors such as Shirley Jackson, Jessamyn West, Katherine Mansfield, Maureen Daly, and Reynolds Price.

Waterhouse, Keith. *Billy Liar*. New York: Berkeley Publishing Company, 1959. The agonies of growing up presented in hilarious terms by a young man who "comes to grips" by lying.

Wells, Patricia. *Babyhip*. New York: E. P. Dutton and Co., Inc., 1967. A sixteen-year-old girl, somewhere between teeny-bopper and hippie, verbally overwhelms her parents, teachers, and guidance counselors.

West, Jessamyn. *Cress Delahanty*. New York: Harcourt, Brace & World, Inc., 1954. Growing up with a middle-class California girl, who might have been thought of as the typical American adolescent. How different is this picture from today's "typical" adolescent?

Wolfe, Thomas. *Look Homeward, Angel*. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1947. A young man grows up observing his family and neighbors in a small town,

discovers literature and ideas, and finally leaves home to "discover the world." Wright, Richard. *Black Boy*. New York: Harper & Row, Publishers, 1945. The difficulties of growing up in a segregated society, graphically presented.

Two-Way Skills

communication

5

According to linguist Joshua Whatmough, "Nearly everybody talks, many can read and write, and some listen."¹

Because talking, reading, writing, and listening are concerned with words they are called verbal communication, and they make up 70 percent of all human exchange.²

Nonverbal communication—gestures, grimaces, body movements—also allows man to convey ideas and emotions, but most often nonverbal behavior serves to underscore and enrich the verbal.

Obviously, the good teacher is proficient in both forms of communication, but the nature of his work demands that he be primarily concerned with the verbal. Indeed, a teacher stands or falls largely on his ability to communicate through language. If he is able to make his students understand his knowledge, his insights, or his values, he succeeds; if he fails to do so, he fails as a teacher. An individual need not be a scholar to be an outstanding teacher, but he must be a good communicator.

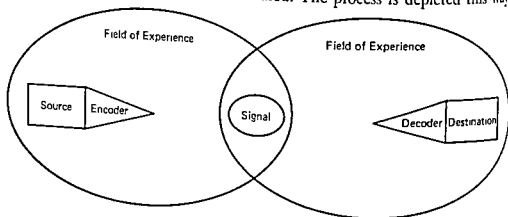
The Communication Process

Understanding the way in which communication occurs should help in understanding some of the problems of teaching-learning.

¹ Joshua Whatmough, *Language: A Modern Synthesis*. New York: New American Library of World Literature, Inc., 1956, p. 16.

² David K. Berlo, *The Process of Communication*. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1960, p. 1.

One explanation of the process³ depicts three basic elements: source, message, and destination. A message (idea or feeling) is sent from a source to a destination by way of a signal (in this case language). Each source contains an encoder, which translates the message into a signal; each destination contains a decoder, which retranslates the signal into the message. An idea, then, exists in an individual which he translates into language so that another person may understand him. When the words reach the ear of the second person, they are retranslated into idea form. Of course, it is necessary that both the source and destination have similar experiences if the idea is to be shared. The process is depicted this way:



Think of the circles as the accumulated experience of the two individuals trying to communicate. The source can encode, and the destination decode, only in terms of the experience each has had. If the circles have only a small area in common—that is, if the experience of source and destination have been strikingly unlike—then it is going to be difficult to get an intended meaning across from one to the other. This is the difficulty we face when a non-science trained person tries to read Einstein, or when we try to communicate with another culture much different from ours.⁴

In oral language, the speaker usually receives a feedback that allows him to know to what extent he is "getting through." An experienced communicator then alters his message according to the behavior he sees or hears, in order to make it more understandable to his audience.

In its passage from source to destination, the message may encounter "competitive signal noise" (inattention or fatigue on the part of the receiver, ineffective signal, sounds or sights that vie for attention) which either prevents the message from being delivered or distorts it when it does arrive.

Since teachers and students are constantly in the act of sending and receiving messages, it is obvious why they should understand the process of communication. To what extent do teachers send messages to students out of a frame of experience which students do not share? To what extent do the distractions of the classroom create communication noise that prevents the message from

³ Wilbur Schramm (ed.), "How Communication Works," *The Process and Effects of Mass Communication*. Urbana: University of Illinois Press, 1954, pp. 3-26.

⁴ Schramm, p. 4.

getting through? To what extent do students attempt to send messages for which there is no teacher experience or for which the teacher provides his own static?

Perhaps it is bromidic to suggest that every teacher is a language teacher—but it is true. In each subject area there are opportunities for students to read, listen, write, and speak. How can teachers do less than arrange learning experiences that allow growth in these components of verbal communication?

The Reading Component

For most students, the key to success in school is their ability to read. Most of the work they do individually or in groups, and most of the ways in which they are evaluated, depend primarily on how well they read. Despite the fact that this reliance on reading increases as students move farther up the educational ladder, the formal teaching of reading skills is usually abandoned by the beginning of junior high school; reading development, while obviously fundamental to achievement, is left to chance. And yet, evidence proves that reading efficiency develops only when it is directly taught.

There are good reasons why each teacher should be a teacher of reading in his field:

1. Each subject has its own vocabulary and its own frame of experience which allows learning to occur.
2. It is the nature of schools today that students of diverse reading abilities are usually grouped together for learning. In order to work effectively with what may often be a reading ability range of five grade levels in the average classroom,⁵ every teacher must be prepared to teach the "reading" of his subject.
3. The modern curriculum makes it necessary for students to have multiple reinforcement in all areas for developing reading skills. Marshall McLuhan predicts that written language will diminish in educational importance as students—nourished on electronic media—grow in sophistication. Increasingly, he says, students will learn through "immersion" of all the senses. While McLuhan may be accurate in his prognostications, today's classroom teacher must deal with students now and most classroom activity still depends on reading materials for teaching and learning.
4. The educationally disadvantaged student usually needs special assistance in reading material whose subtlety, vocabulary, or complexity possibly lies outside his field of experience. How often does such a student, whose interest and ability may be high, meet failure or discouragement because he cannot "read" his way around semantic or technical jargon?

⁵ Albert J. Harris, *How to Increase Reading Ability*. New York: David McKay Company, Inc., 1956, p. 101. (Originally published by Longmans, Green & Co., Inc., New York.) See also *Readings on Instruction*, Albert J. Harris (ed.). New York: David McKay Company, Inc., 1963.

Anticipating what students need to know in order to know more is one of the distinguishing marks of the good teacher; anticipating ways of aiding young people to break the reading code that may stand between them and success is therefore imperative.

Reading: How It Happens

What happens when a person reads? Two things occur: first, he apprehends individual words, phrases, and other symbols; second, he relates these words, phrases, and symbols to make greater meanings. When he apprehends, that is, when he deals with vocabulary, he is functioning at the minimum level in the reading process. It is when he makes verbal relationships, when he discovers or employs context, when he relates the new to the old for depth—when he comprehends—that his reading achieves its highest level.

The fewer words the reader knows in a subject area, the slower his reading speed will be. Conversely, if he reads rapidly, ignoring unknowns, he will be superficial and chaotic in comprehension. It is pointless to talk of speed and comprehension in isolation; neither has meaning unless each is considered in relation to the subject area being absorbed.

Speed must be adjusted to content. It is unlikely that a person will read a newspaper account with the same speed he employs in reading an explanation of fluid dynamics. Rate of speed depends on what one reads and why he reads it.

Comprehension is a multilevel word concerned with breadth and depth, and ranging from trends, generalizations, and analyses to names, events, and places. Comprehension also employs recall, evaluation, and application to new circumstances.

Guides to Better Reading

What specific things can teachers do to help all students read better? Here are some suggestions:

Diagnose the reading level of material provided for the student. Examine all texts and collateral reading carefully to see what special reading difficulties may be encountered. Clues will, of course, be found in the introduction to the book itself. For what grade level was this particular book written? On what basis was this reading level set? The teacher himself must, of course, read the material to discover any special problems in understanding the concepts introduced.

Arrange an environment conducive to the enjoyment of reading. The room should be a pleasant place in which to read silently. Color, light, pictures, comfortable tables and chairs, growing plants, and other decorative features will all aid in creating a place in which reading can thrive. Do not underestimate the power of an effective bulletin board in developing interests that may be satisfied by some pertinent reading material. A special bulletin board (or part of one) that encourages reading relationships between a particular subject area and news-

papers, magazines, and books can often mean the difference between an uninterested, or bored, student and one who reads for study or enjoyment.

Provide a variety of reading materials. After diagnosing the reading level of the text, have on hand books and other reading materials that are both much more difficult and much easier than the text. In this way, a teacher can guide his students, whatever their individual levels of reading skill.

Each room should have its own library of supplementary reading material. Here the teacher can have at hand just the right items for the students without having to go through the procedures required in a larger school or public library. A browsing shelf, with new items displayed prominently and invitingly, and a lending system for taking books home will be of inestimable help in encouraging reading in any subject field. Using student help in organizing and arranging such a library is a good way to teach simple library procedures. Getting students to lend their own books to others will also encourage reading.

Assist the students in special problems of reading peculiar to the subject area. Make lists of the specialized vocabulary that will be encountered in the week ahead and go over it with the class. It is useful to have large, lettered charts on which difficult or special words are presented and defined, with both a dictionary definition and an illustration of usage. Use the chalkboard liberally in writing out new words and word phrases and give students an opportunity to raise questions about words.

Gear class discussion to the kind of reading skill desired. If reading is to be for enjoyment, do not hinder this goal by seeking detail and fact and intricate analysis as an outcome of the reading. Instead, raise problems of attitude, feeling, emotion, and bias and try to stimulate new ideas.

Divide the class into reading levels for some aspects of instruction. Often a teacher can obtain copies of different texts at different reading levels. Since most texts in a given field cover approximately the same material, although with varying emphases, this procedure can make for very rich learning as each reading group contributes to the total class discussion those aspects of the problem particularly emphasized in its book.⁶

Consult the school files for the reading scores of students. Many schools conduct routine reading tests of all entering students, but teachers do not make adequate use of this information. A teacher can save himself much worry and disturbance by knowing beforehand the reading level of the students in his class. Moreover, the job of planning reading material for individual abilities is then made easier.

Conduct a study of class reading interests and habits. A simple inventory will often provide a teacher with important information about the general interest range and reading level of the class. Such an inventory might include the following:

⁶ For a detailed analysis of reading groups in class work, see Guy L. Bond and Bertha Handlan, *Adapting Instruction in Reading to Individual Differences*, Series on Individualization of Instruction, No. 5. Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press, 1948, pp. 65-70.

1. Do you enjoy reading?
2. What kinds of things do you like to read most?
3. What kinds of things do you like to read least?
4. How many books do you own?
5. Do your parents like to read a lot? What do they read?
6. Besides yours, how many books are in your home?
7. What newspapers do you get at home? What sections do you like to read best?
8. What magazines do you get at home? Do you read them? Which ones?
9. Do you wear glasses now? Have you ever worn glasses?
10. Do you feel you have any special difficulty in reading? If so, what is it?
11. What are your special interests or hobbies?

A similar inventory may be sent home for the parents to fill out regarding the student's reading habits and the parents' own attitudes toward reading. On the basis of this information, the teacher may be helped to determine where students are having difficulty and where he can guide them toward adequate adult reading habits. After such a study has been made, the teacher should place the results in the student's counseling folder so that other teachers may make use of the same data without having to quiz students constantly on their interests and habits.

Read aloud to your classes. Teachers often forget that reading aloud can be a very exciting teaching technique. If there is some highly dramatic, interesting, or complicated portion of the subject matter, take time out to read a few paragraphs. If this is followed by discussion, reading will be a less mysterious process for many students.

Teachers should use reading aloud by students with caution. Few are skilled in the technique. For many students, oral reading itself is a barrier to developing good silent reading habits. To read aloud with interest is, however, a valuable skill for any future parent and might well be developed as part of a Family Living course. Where families read aloud together, and talk about what has been read, many important personal as well as intellectual values are achieved.

Do a case study of a reading problem. Each beginning teacher should focus his attention on a reading problem during one period of his early teaching. A valuable device is to do a concentrated case study of a student with a reading handicap. Then, through analysis of this individual problem and the remedial and instructional techniques developed to meet it, the teacher will gain important insights that will be helpful in working with others.

Exert influence to have paperback books available for sale in the school. A student who owns books, reads books. Even in the most poverty-stricken areas it has been found that students will be tempted to purchase inexpensive books—if they are around.

See if the school library has an adequate collection of material in your field. If not, agitate to develop one. Publicize the need for books and journals and give specific titles. Parents and school patrons often like to give books or will help in

purchasing them. "Book fairs" are another resource; so is the roving *Combined Paperback Exhibit in Schools*, which whets the appetite of adults and students alike. (Information can be obtained from The Combined Book Exhibit, Inc., Scarborough Park, Albany Post Road, Briarcliff Manor, N.Y. 10510.)

Clues to Reading Retardation

Retardation in reading usually results from a complexity of causes. Mental, physical, and emotional factors may all be involved. None of these can be treated in isolation, but only in association with the others.

The retarded reader may often be identified by the following characteristics:

1. He is dissatisfied with his reading, revealing his dissatisfaction either through specific complaint or through objections to any reading assignment.
2. His reading test scores are in the lowest fourth for his grade level.
3. He can use words in speaking which he seems unable to comprehend when they are written.
4. He is average or above in achievement if he is required to do schoolwork that does not call for any reading.
5. He shows special personal problems, such as poor attitude toward school, unusual nervousness, extreme hostility toward teachers, extreme apathy toward classroom occurrences, sluggish physical performance.

This list covers general clues. However, the teacher will also want to note students who manifest visual difficulty in any of the following ways:

1. Holding a book very close to the eyes
2. Holding a book very far away
3. Squinting severely
4. Odd and consistent reversals of words during an oral exercise
5. Persistent complaint about headaches as an excuse not to study
6. Falling asleep in class as soon as a study period occurs
7. Becoming hyperactive as soon as study period arrives
8. Inconsistent use of glasses: often students with a reading problem will forget or break glasses
9. Extremely heavy glasses
10. Cross-eyedness or a damaged eye
11. Lip movements while reading; actual oral reading accompanying silent reading or residual muscular movements from poor training in reading
12. Moving the head to follow the line of the page. A good reader will move the eyes; a poor reader, who reads word by word, will move the head in addition. Often this head movement, although not perceptible from the front, can be seen by watching the back neck muscles
13. Monotonous oral reading, which usually indicates reading word by word instead of reading for the sense of the phrase.

The Diagnosis of Reading Difficulty

Many excellent reading tests will aid the teacher in discovering group and individual reading problems. Some of the most widely used are the following: Iowa Silent Reading Tests (Harcourt, Brace & World, Inc., New York); Nelson-Denny Reading Test (Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston); Diagnostic Reading Test Survey (Science Research Associates, Inc., Chicago).⁷

In addition, the teacher may want to devise a simple reading test of his own. This is easily done. The teacher chooses a selection of reading matter that seems to be typical of the kind of reading he will expect of his students. He counts the words in the selection carefully. Then he makes duplicate copies of the passage and gives them to the class under optimal conditions of relaxation and motivation, setting a time limit and asking each student to mark where he finished when time is called. The group is given a set of questions to test their comprehension of the selection, the questions being similar to those that will be asked on reading material in class. One teacher may seek overall understanding of mood or point of view, while another may want students to grasp the sequence of thought or retain particular details. A careful checking of several such simple tests will quickly reveal to the teacher individual reading patterns. One student may read slowly, but grasp all he reads; another may read rapidly, but be confused and vague about content. With this knowledge the teacher will be able to guide individuals toward more adequate reading habits.

General Remedial Procedures

Increasingly, schools are developing special reading classes for retarded readers. Increasingly, specially trained reading teachers are coming to the assistance of the classroom teacher. However, there are still not enough special classes or specialists to provide the help needed. At the secondary level particularly, the provision of special reading skills and the remediation of poor ones are apt to be neglected. For this reason, the classroom teacher should know what he can do to aid students with reading problems.

First, the average classroom teacher who wishes to help retarded readers must acknowledge that he is not an expert and that he must proceed with caution lest he compound these students' problems. However, numerous excellent guides are available which provide the teacher with sound basic principles in reading. University programs in the teaching of reading are growing in number, and participation in such a program is a valuable asset to every teacher. For individuals untrained in reading instruction remedial techniques are suggested in the following paragraphs.

Develop special rapport with students who need remedial assistance. Such students are often delighted to have someone take an interest in their problem, al-

⁷ For detailed descriptions and reviews of these other reading tests, see O. K. Buros, *Mental Measurements Yearbook* Highland Park, New Jersey: The Gryphon Press. Periodically updated, look for latest edition.

though they are sometimes extremely discouraged about the possibilities of doing anything about it. The teacher will have to set aside some time several days a week for individual work if a remedial approach is taken.

Help the student gain insight into the basis of his own difficulty. After giving the student some reading tests, review the results and discuss his study habits with him; perhaps he has prevented himself from overcoming his handicap by poor study conditions, failure to wear glasses, etc.

Provide for recreational reading. Often, a start will have to be made at a very low level of reading; perhaps the retarded student should be allowed to work on comic books, paperbound books, and magazines, if that is all he is interested in. Because most retarded readers are negatively conditioned to any kind of reading, the teacher should permit the student to read material of his own choosing even if this deviates considerably from the course content.

Find a problem important to the student, requiring him to use some reading skill in order to obtain a solution.

Discuss reading material with him both before and after he has read it. Through a friendly and informal chat, the teacher can aid the student in looking for meaning in what he reads, in reducing initial anxiety when confronted by a printed page, and in reading for ideas.

Concentrate assistance, after rapport has been achieved, on the work of the class. Do not make the remedial procedures so different that the student feels left out and isolated and cannot understand the essence of daily work. The daily assignments in reading should be part of his reading work and should be the basis for special attention so that he can continue to be a regular member of the class.

Discuss the student with his other teachers. It often helps if the cooperation of all the teachers of a student needing remedial aid can be enlisted so that he gets support in all his classes. The confidence he gains in one area will not then be undermined through repeated failure in another. It is also important to see that duplication of effort is avoided. If one teacher has better rapport with the student, then that teacher should be the one to undertake the greater portion of the remedial aid.

Literary and Expository Reading

The challenges confronting the teacher in improving the reading ability of all his students vary according to whether the materials are literary or expository. In both categories, however, it is necessary to consider problems of vocabulary and problems of ideas.

Literary Materials: Vocabulary

For the most part, literature vocabulary study should emphasize the shades of meanings cast by words. Word power can be enhanced by taking a passage in which word choice is particularly apt and substituting less adequate choices. Literary study also allows an understanding of how word choice aids in shaping

style—for example, by examining ways in which words stimulate visual, auditory, olfactory, tactile, and kinesthetic imagery.

Literary Materials: Ideas

The problem of reading for ideas in literature is multifaceted because literature has many forms: fiction, drama, and poetry, to name three. Modern novels coexist with the mass media, which provide a smoking gun and three corpses in the first four minutes. This is rough competition for the initial involvement offered by the "standard" works of literature. The mass media have also increased the significance of two other important concerns: "pick-me-ups" during reading and the ability to synthesize as reading progresses. Students may become involved and "picked up" by a teacher's reading of sections of a work. An accomplished teacher can generate enthusiasm by his skillful interpretation of an author's words and by the obvious enjoyment he takes in the reading. He may regenerate enthusiasm as the novel develops by involving students and himself in impromptu dramatic scenes that crystallize the narrative. He may aid students to synthesize at major points in the novel—as well as at the end—by recreating through comments, questions, and dramatic readings the people, places, and events encountered. These techniques can aid students to develop within themselves a silent theater of understanding and appreciation.

Expository Materials

Comprehension skills vary according to the specific fields of knowledge. Each has its own hallmarks that must be recognized if each is to be understood. However, since comprehension in all these fields primarily involves logical communication, with the aesthetic element subordinated, some similarity in logical patterns for building ideas can be observed for the diverse fields of knowledge by considering problems in social studies, science, and mathematics.

Social Studies: Vocabulary

A couplet from Pope states succinctly the problem of vocabulary in the social studies:

*Words are like leaves, and where they most abound
Much fruit of sense beneath is rarely found.*

Social studies materials may contain such words as "hemisphere," "armada," "plebeian," and "junta." The student must learn a technical vocabulary more or less peculiar to social studies. In addition, he must learn the proper names of peoples, civilizations, and places and be able to recognize these names and understand their significance. Finally, he must learn many common words that have a special social studies meaning: "cabinet," "duty," "ticket," and "platform," to mention just a few. The students may find so many new words and meanings

confusing or overwhelming. If this happens, the possibility of communication noise is great; if these new words are to acquire meaning for students, each key *social studies* word requires a rich background of concrete referents built from direct and indirect experience. Materials from audiovisual areas—filmstrips, films, photographs, recordings, magazines, and newspapers—can help establish these needed referents.

Social Studies: Ideas

Telling a story and developing concepts require differing approaches to achieve their differing ends. Story material may violate time sequence: may use flashbacks, for example, and other techniques. Concept-developing material has a much greater devotion to chronological or logical sequencing. Story material sometimes builds ideas by indirection; it may never clearly state the idea toward which it is tending, therefore reading between the lines is almost always necessary. Concept building material constructs ideas more directly: by stating a problem, furnishing data, drawing conclusions; or sometimes by stating a principle and then illustrating its application by concrete instances. Story material may not heed logical order or supply all the steps necessary for the logical development of an idea. In concept-building material, close attention is paid to the demands of logic in both order and completeness. Finally, and most important of all, most story material is written primarily for emotional impact while concept-building material is written primarily for intellectual effect.

In reading for concept, in any field, the student should be made aware of the format and punctuation clues the writer and the publisher have provided (see Chapter 11).

Reading to solve social-studies problems should also be taught through specific practice with reference techniques. Students need experience in defining what they are looking for. After that they need help in finding the sources of data, thereby gradually increasing their competence in library skills. And next, they need practice in seeing what conclusions are justified by the evidence.

Reading to find illustrations of a social-studies principle or concept also needs guidance. Social-studies materials often contain stories, anecdotes, and reports of events which are intended to support the generalization, principle, or concept. The process is from concept to illustration to concept. But the inductive leap back to the concept must be assured. Otherwise the initial concept is lost in the illustrations.

Students need help in following the logic used to advance social propositions:

1. What are the assumptions behind the social proposition?
2. How many of the assumptions can be supported by evidence? How many have to be accepted without evidence?
3. What logically follows from these assumptions?
4. Do these deductions follow in the order in which the writer states them?
Has he included all the pertinent deductions?

only is it necessary for students to have a good, clear "reader set" before new scientific material is read: it is also important for them to look back at the overall structure regularly, to make certain that the relationships of the parts to the whole are still clear.

Mathematics: Vocabulary

Mathematics operates with three vocabularies: verbal symbol, numerical symbol, and literal symbol. Some mathematical statements use only verbal symbols:

The area of a rectangle is equal to the product of its length and width.
Some mathematical statements use only numerical symbols:

$$10 \times 5 = 50$$

Some mathematical statements use only literal symbols:

$$A = lw$$

Some mathematical statements mix all three vocabularies together:

What is the area of a rectangle where l is 5 feet and w is 10?

The referent, the object or idea, for which each kind of symbol stands has to be clear before the student can use the symbols to advantage. This is difficult enough when any one kind of symbol is used; it is triply difficult with three—somewhat analogous to understanding a man who mixes English, French, and Russian in the same sentence.

Whereas context is the most important clue to meaning in most reading, it sometimes functions very ineffectively in mathematics. Mathematical statement is so terse that, for the most part, each symbol is self-contained. Other symbols in the statement do not provide as many clues to meaning as they would in most other fields. The reader, therefore, must carry to the statements the necessary context, knowing that he will get little help from the surroundings in which the symbol is imbedded.

Mathematics: Ideas

Mathematics, in addition to using three vocabularies, deals in a conciseness not found in any other discipline. Each word and symbol used serves a particular purpose; no necessary word or symbol is lacking, and no extraneous ones are included. The "New Math," perhaps more than ever, relies upon this specificity. The reader, then, must read carefully from the first word. He does not always have a paragraph to apprise him gradually of what lies ahead, as he does in almost every other subject, including science. The reader must use the same text both to obtain the general structure or arrangement of relationships and to secure the details to fit into that structure or arrangement.

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In an age when mass media plays a significant role in daily living, the ability to detect when social propositions are advanced by sound logic and evidence, and when they are not, is obviously crucial.

Students need practice in reading graphs, charts, and tables, which are important in understanding much social-studies material. They also need experience in "reading pictures." Entire principles or theories can sometimes be reinforced, amplified, or challenged by examining the photographs that accompany printed materials. This critical-thinking exercise is too often neglected by overly word-conscious teachers.

Science: Vocabulary

Of all the reading material faced by students, few are more heavily freighted with special vocabulary than science materials. The careful and gradual introduction of new vocabulary is not uniformly pursued in science textbooks; therefore it will pay dividends if the science teacher examines his material for the vocabulary burden it places on neophytes. Many teachers who make this examination for the first time are appalled. It is easy for adults, who read the material casually, to overlook how many new terms are being introduced. Moreover, the teacher will soon note that words in science are used with greater precision than those occurring in literature or in the social studies.

Science: Ideas

At the beginning of science study, students will encounter examples of the compactness of scientific writing. The student will come to know then that his attention must be unwaveringly concentrated. He will soon develop the practice of never passing a paragraph without being able to paraphrase it.

Because the possibility of communication noise is so great in science, it is wise for the teacher to anticipate problems in two ways: by allowing students and teacher to read aloud sections in which key ideas are developed; by supplementing this reading with discussion and with the use of pictures, graphs, charts, and demonstrations. Science, particularly for the adolescent, needs to have its symbols firmly attached to reality; the clearer the referent, the greater possibility for understanding and application. One teacher developed the procedure of having students paired: for each assigned section, one student was "reader," the other "listener." These roles were reversed for each assignment. The listener had to report to the reader what it was he thought the passage meant. The reader in turn had to see if the listener had heard what the reader himself thought he had read. Together, they were able to figure out the content of the passage, although even then different pairs came up with different interpretations. This became a basis for class analysis.

In scientific writing it is very important for the reader to have the overall structure of material clearly in mind in order that he may fit the individual concepts, which come all too rapidly, into a set of understandable relationships. And not

only is it necessary for students to have a good, clear "reader set" before new scientific material is read: it is also important for them to look back at the overall structure *regularly*, to make certain that the relationships of the parts to the whole are still clear.

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In subjects other than mathematics, he can usually read along through suc-

cessive portions of text, without as much necessity for constant re-reading. In mathematics, he must almost always reread a statement: first to note the conditions of the problem, the relationships, the processes; and then to note and use the specific quantities presented in words, numbers, or letters. As a matter of fact, he must often, perhaps even most of the time, read still again to see that he has fitted structure and detail together properly; that he has missed neither some essentials of the structure (failed to see a necessary operation), nor some of the detail (omitted a necessary quantity).

There are two final considerations: (1) In story problems, students need considerable practice in locating the words and phrases that determine what is to be solved. Without this skill of determining the central concern, students cannot proceed. (2) Students must be impressed with the careful building of one mathematical understanding on another. Failure to grasp earlier processes makes it impossible to comprehend later ones and causes students to fall victim to cumulative retardation. Idea building is important in all disciplines, but it is especially important in mathematics. A classroom environment must exist in which students are encouraged and aided to question and request until they understand.

Reading Skills for Survival

The most reluctant reader will acknowledge his need, and probably his desire, to read materials that will help him function in a verbal world. Even students who read well discover that there are areas in which they have to read with special skill. Everyone is eventually confronted with directions, terminology, and "gobbledegook" that demands translation for survival. The adolescent who, as a student, does not acquire these survival skills will find his adult life needlessly burdened, and perhaps even marred, by the consequences.

Following directions on income tax, application, or membership forms may prove troublesome to the point of serious error. Failure to read fine print in a legal contract may result in the too-late reminder, "Buyer, beware!" Inability to read quickly may be a great hindrance in traveling on rapid-speed highways, just as failure to understand telegraphic road signs such as "Yield" and "SLOW Children at Play" may cause tragedy. Regional road terms such as "Rotary," "Median," "Xing Ped," and "Soft Shoulders" may cause confusion, as so may the sign "Drive Careful" to a person concerned with the niceties of language. Being alerted to these and other blocks to understanding can help students survive verbally. Teachers can provide helps to this kind of reading problem through passing comments, by bulletin board displays, or by subtle correlations of regular course work with "the real world."

Reading for Enjoyment

Helping students to read better will automatically help them to enjoy reading more. Whatever the subject, enjoyment of the reading experience is basic

to full understanding and appreciation of content. Too often students find reading painful rather than enjoyable:

From the very beginning of school we make books and reading a constant source of possible failure and public humiliation. . . . Before long many children associate books and reading with mistakes, real or feared, and penalties and humiliation.⁸

What can teachers do to substitute reading enjoyment for reading pain? They can begin by realizing that while textbooks are major tools, they may also create negative attitudes toward reading if that is all the reading students are encouraged to do.

. . . *much of the material which is presented in textbooks is altogether inappropriate for the cultivation of reading habits.* When the history of the United States, for example, is condensed into a book of 500 or 600 pages, it has to be compressed to such an extent that the anecdotes which would make it a lively, interesting subject are almost, if not entirely, left out. Every sentence has to carry an idea requiring minute attention. The book is a compact body of factual statements which does not invite or permit fluent reading. . . .

. . . in most of the recitations which the pupil attends the teachers show ingenuity in torturing the subject studied by asking all kinds of questions which train the pupil in the most deliberate and minute dissection of what he has read. The result is that whenever a pupil takes up a book he begins to ramble in his thinking, indulging in all kinds of speculation as to the possible questions that one might raise. Pupils begin to think that it requires from three to six months to read through a book.⁹

To assume that the cultivation of reading enjoyment is the province of English teachers is to suggest that no other discipline can provide reading pleasure. Biographies, historical fiction, and historical accounts like those of Barbara Tuchman and Garrett Mattingly permit students to discover for themselves the excitement and enjoyment often obscured by textbooks. The abundance of new paperback books is particularly advantageous to the social studies. The accessibility and attractiveness of most of these publications make it easy for students to know history directly, through biographies, memoirs, and reportorial accounts. Readings in fiction, such as a comparative study of Margaret Mitchell's *Gone With the Wind* and Margaret Walker's *Jubilee*, enable students to see contrasting viewpoints in dramatic terms. Exposure to magazines such as *American Heritage* and *Horizon* does much to reveal to students that history is "alive." Authors such as Paul de Kruif, Loren Eisely, Donald Peattie, and Eric Temple Bell have made scientific writing as thrilling as a mystery story. There is abundant current material in the popular magazines on most of the topics taught in high-school science classes, and the articles are written so that science becomes an exciting

⁸ John Holt, "How Teachers Make Children Hate Reading," *Redbook*, November 1967, p. 50ff.

⁹ *What the High Schools Ought To Teach*. Washington, D.C.: American Council on Education, 1940, pp. 12-13.

and satisfying experience. For the study of languages, the personal anecdotes of travels abroad, the lives of immigrants of the various nationality groups in America, and the translated fiction of the foreign culture are all excellent materials, as are newspapers and periodicals from other countries.

Bringing students into contact with the exciting books of many fields depends upon the teacher's knowledge of such works and it also depends upon the teacher's efforts to bring students and libraries—school and public—together.

Helping students discover the joy of reading is the responsibility of every teacher.

Other Communication Skills: Observation Is Essential

If every teacher is a teacher of reading, he is also a teacher of all the areas of observation. It is true that special subject teachers, such as English, music, art, speech, and physical education, dwell upon these abilities; but each teacher should also develop them with respect to his subject area. It is obvious to state that we get many of our cues to meaning from facial expression, gesture, and stance, and not just from the spoken word. One near-sighted boy literally cannot "hear" if he does not have his glasses on; he cannot observe the speaker's total posture which conveys meanings beyond the mere words. In fact, many people are unconscious lip-readers, which is why they watch speakers so closely. "Reading emotion" is a skill learned early by girls, but less frequently found among boys; and this may be one reason girls appear to do better (if grades are a criterion) in most school subjects. They can "read" the teacher and know when he means what he says and when he doesn't. Learning to be an observer, then, is a skill that contributes to being a more competent person in a complex world of people, things and events.

The Listening Component

More than any other communication skill, listening is taken for granted. It is assumed, somehow, that competence in recording and reacting to spoken language develops on its own. The fact that students engage in listening more than in any other school activity may give rise to the idea that listening skills perfect themselves. Nothing could be farther from reality. Listening, like all other language arts, develops more reliably when it is directly taught.

Every teacher will want to consider three areas of importance that affect the development of listening skills: classroom atmosphere, techniques of listening, and hearing handicaps.

Some situations encourage listening while others discourage it. Physical environment and psychological atmosphere contribute greatly to whether or not a student "hears" or "listens"—and how well. The actual classroom and its surroundings contribute many distractions to effective listening. Furniture squeaks, scrapes, and bumps; doors slam in the corridor; chords and discords filter in from the music room. In some rooms heating fixtures hum, poor acoustics create echoes. And in every classroom there is always the possibility of interruptions from the public address system.

Out-of-class noises also affect what happens in the classroom. Often schools are near train tracks or airports, on streets with heavy traffic, or classrooms are adjacent to playing fields. Such conditions impose a handicap on teaching and learning. One of the difficulties of most "inner-city" schools is that they are ancient structures standing amidst factories and other dingy, unattractive buildings, attempting to function on hyperactive thoroughfares where air pollution competes with ear pollution. One solution to noise distraction—although unfortunately only in new, experimental schools—is the carpeting of all floor space: a successful effort to muffle sound, which also manages to remove some of the "coldness" of the typical classroom.

A direct control of noise in the school building can be effected by each individual teacher through self-monitoring of the noise he himself creates or allows. Often disturbances can be controlled by closing doors or windows; moving to a more restricted area of the building; or, not infrequently, by the teacher's lowering his voice.

I was called to the north wing of the school this afternoon by several teachers' protests. "Miss Tebaldi," the voice teacher who was afraid she would strain her voice, was teaching with the help of a hand microphone. It certainly saved her voice, but it completely disrupted classes in nine other rooms.

Play or music rehearsals, group projects, sports practice all have the right—and need—to make more-than-usual sound; none of them has either the need or the right to make noise that disturbs other classes.

Techniques of Listening

Once the listening atmosphere of the classroom has been considered, the teacher will want to determine the attention level of his students.

After a discussion has started, the teacher might stop and inquire, "Now, what was the main point?" or, "Can you trace the steps we have taken in our discussion, Bill?" Through such devices, the teacher may gauge the attention level of his students. Can they actually follow an oral presentation? The teacher may learn, for example, that many students are not used to hearing intellectual conversation. Catching cue words, listening for the main idea, getting the sense of an involved statement—these are the problems for training.

As a way of developing skills the teacher may want to introduce recordings on records or tape. Here the speaker is not present; only his words are. Watching the faces of youngsters while a recording is being played may tell the teacher a great deal about their listening habits. An oral or written quiz after the recording may also reveal students who have listening problems.

Practice can be provided by asking students to sit silently for 2 minutes while they write down all sounds they hear. In reading their lists to one another, they will discover that not everyone heard the same things and that the ability to observe through listening is an important skill. The teacher could also have a tape recorder going to see what "the machine" hears that humans do not! Illustrations can also be made by asking students to report on what they have

"listened to" and "heard" during a class break. Distinctions should be made between the two, and the reasons for "listening" as opposed to "hearing" should be discussed.

Another hearing-listening exercise may involve the use of high-fidelity test recordings that employ a wide array of sounds to be identified by the listener. This technique may be equally effective in an introduction to the study of sound in a science class or in the introduction or development of skills in other areas of the curriculum. Incidentally, such a technique may be a means of gaining the involvement of a student whose interest lies in stereo equipment or mechanical devices, but not in the subject in which the material is presented.

Other experiences might include short end-of-class exercises where students listen to teacher- and student-spoken material, practicing necessary aural discriminations. The students might also correlate listening and speaking exercises that allow them to "catch" regional speech patterns and pronunciations as suggested later in this chapter.

The teacher will want to utilize out-of-school experiences as much as possible in developing listening skills. In order to do this, he should be acquainted with currently popular radio and television programs and movies, sampling those enjoyed by students in order to know what influences are at work on them outside the classroom. This knowledge will provide the teacher with a background for his task of developing listening-skill practices in his students; moreover, it will provide sources for developing listening discrimination.

One major deterrent in perfecting listening habits is the notion that whenever the student sits still to listen, he is to be entertained. Students unfortunately develop a pattern of listening that says, in effect, "We are either entertained when we listen, or we are bored; there is no middle ground." It is this attitude that interferes with adequate listening in class and certainly militates against listening to recordings, radio, television, and films that require some critical reaction.

Hearing Handicaps

A student who has a hearing handicap presents a special problem in the communications skills. Some school systems provide a hearing test for all entering students, and the information obtained from it is entered on the student's permanent record. Teachers are informed of the results at the time the test is taken; but, like all such information, it will not be useful in succeeding semesters unless each teacher consults the records for all his students.

The student who constantly says, "But I didn't hear you make that announcement," or "I didn't catch the page number when it was given," may have a genuine hearing difficulty. Before the teacher judges such a student as lazy or provocative, he might more humanely check to see whether the student has a hearing problem.

Nancy consistently failed to get her homework in on time, offering the excuse "But I didn't hear you." After audiometer tests were given, her teacher discovered

that she had no hearing at all in one ear. When her seat was changed to the other side of the room, so that her good ear was in the best position to catch what was said from the front of the room, Nancy's work improved considerably. Nancy herself had not realized that she had a hearing disability until the test was administered.

There is some lack of agreement as to what is meant by "deafness" and by "hearing loss." However, most studies of school children indicate that between 5 and 10 percent have some definite hearing defect.¹⁰ The available studies on hearing loss make it clear that this physical limitation definitely makes personal and social adjustment difficult. Since so much of school activity depends upon what can be "heard," the teacher must be especially sensitive to this problem.

What can the teacher do about a student whose hearing is impaired? He can employ several methods of making directions clear and he can provide additional materials for learning. He should not only give oral instructions for assignments, but also write them on the chalkboard. Thus both sight and hearing may be used to obtain important information. He can also see that the student is seated in an advantageous place in the room, that other students assist him in his work if he would accept such assistance, and that he has assignments that allow him to capitalize on his other senses.

The Writing Component

I hate to write. Teachers don't pay any attention to what you say, anyway. All they look for are mistakes—like grammar, spelling, and punctuation—and whether you're giving them back what they want. It's like a game, and it's almost impossible to win.

While this student's comment may be something of an exaggeration, it is worth considering. Do teachers consciously or unconsciously preoccupy themselves with the form of what students say to the point of impairing what they say? Certainly, no one dismisses the importance of form, but it is easy in the daily routine of multiple evaluations to seize on the "how" and ignore the "what." When this happens, the students assume, as the one above suggests, that minutia is what is important to teachers, and not substance. If concentration on form does emerge, then teachers have an obligation to re-evaluate their goals. To fail to capitalize on adolescent concern for values and for involvement in the adult world and to fail to give students ideas about these concerns is to deprive them of an important aspect of their education. It is true that what one says is either enhanced or minimized by the form in which he says it, but to

¹⁰ R. G. Barker, B. A. Wright, and M. R. Gonic, *Adjustment to Physical Handicap and Illness*. New York: Social Science Research Council, 1946, p. 163. See also C. D. O'Connor and Alice Streng, "Teaching the Acoustically Handicapped," in *The Education of Exceptional Children*. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1950 (Forty-ninth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part II), p. 156.

emphasize form to the exclusion or detriment of content is to discourage students from wanting to think through and say anything.

There are several ways in which the classroom teacher of any subject can assist students in gaining fluency in conveying important ideas and emotions and cause them to discover, at the same time, that acquiring this skill is a pleasant process: students should be encouraged to write *when they have something important to say*. Too often students try to express ideas that do not interest them, the sole motivation being punishment or fear. The pressure on students to write "because it is required" is an extremely inhibiting factor. The class itself might try to get a letter on a local issue published in the local paper; the subject might be fluoridation, draft laws, minimum wage legislation, civil rights, or drug violations, to suggest just a few. Or students might want to communicate with the principal or superintendent about a matter of importance to the school. Some incentive that places the stress upon the outcome, rather than on the process of writing, may serve to release many students from the dread of writing for a teacher's correction.

If students fail to write complete sentences in answering an examination question in history, in physics, in German, in commercial law, then the teacher should provide them with an opportunity to discuss some of the elements of good writing. Through reward and praise, by posting on bulletin boards examples of good written work, by reading aloud to the class some of the better materials turned in by students the teacher can do much to develop an affirmative attitude toward writing.

The best practice for the teacher attempting to foster a positive attitude is to make many comments on the student's written work, pointed most of the time toward the recognition of good material. Even if the work is not of the best quality, it is important that the teacher find positive observations to make. Such comments as "good try," "fine start," "shows considerable improvement," or "good choice of words" do a great deal to prepare students for absorbing more critical comments and will make them feel that it is worthwhile to continue.

The teacher should avoid overemphasis on errors. When reading examinations or reports, the teacher is tempted to circle all spelling errors, to make large red checks where incorrect punctuation has been used, to point out all incomplete sentences. The student who spells poorly probably has had many years of failure in that area. To continue to point out all his failures to him is probably the least profitable thing the teacher can do in helping him improve. It is worth the effort to assist students with words common in writing; but class time spent in learning to spell infrequently used words might better be employed in developing ideas, concepts, and attitudes. Large charts with correct spellings, definitions, and appropriate illustrations help make important words useful tools for the student whose fear of misspelling a word may keep him from demonstrating his knowledge.

There is little evidence to support the notion that students who consistently make errors in spelling, punctuation, and grammar look at the corrections made

by the teacher. It has been suggested that students take them for granted and that their eyes pass over them in search of the grade and overall comment.

I'll never forget the first batch of essay examination I corrected and returned to my tenth graders. I had spent hours meticulously correcting each error of content and language. I confess the papers were bright with my red pencil markings. At the end of class I returned the tests; most of the students immediately looked at the grade, then balled them up—and dropped them in the wastebasket as they left class.

At this point a basic concept of good teaching should be stressed. Grades should never be wholly dependent on written examinations; that is, they should never exclude all other modes of evaluation. Some people express themselves well orally, some in writing, some in the graphic arts. The good teacher will provide many ways for his students to demonstrate learning. Overemphasis on writing, to the exclusion of other ways of showing competence, has caused many students to drop out of school and retarded the growth of many others who have stayed in.

The Speaking Component

In general, students will speak better if the situation is relaxed, if they have something important to impart, and if the nature of the occasion is less significant than the sharing of a vital experience. The use of group work (see Chapter 9) will help to provide opportunities for this kind of speaking. The low level of oral communication skills in most secondary-school students implies that all teachers should focus their efforts on aiding students to speak better, to speak more freely, and to speak with greater enjoyment.

Oral work in a classroom should be preceded by a class discussion of what makes a good oral presentation. No matter what the subject matter, when a student is asked to impart knowledge to the rest of the class, to make an explanation, to give directions, or to report progress, it is important that these activities aid in the development of speaking skill. This can be assured if teachers and students discuss what goes into a good oral report, then list together criteria that may be used in evaluating these efforts. Then, when agreement has been reached by the class, the list should be posted in a conspicuous place. When a report has been given, the teacher and the class may refer to the list with the question, "How can we improve?" As in correcting student writing, the teacher should at all times find good points and emphasize them.

In the setting up of a list of factors that contribute to good speaking, the teacher should see that these criteria are included: clarity, interest, ease of audience understanding, directness of contact with audience, poise and relaxation, and absence of distracting mannerisms. A class can quickly and easily build with the teacher a list of such factors. Using an evaluation sheet for oral work or allowing a committee to assess progress also helps students focus on skill

development. But this should not be overemphasized. It is important to keep adolescents, already highly self-conscious, from being so disastrously self-conscious that they are completely tongue-tied and emotionally upset by stage fright.

Teachers should be careful that certain behaviors of their own do not destroy an atmosphere conducive to speaking freely and well.

Mr. Church said on several occasions that he believed it was absolutely necessary for students to practice good speech in class. He couldn't understand why his students consistently refused to practice what he told them was good for them. After all, he explained to other faculty members, he insisted on an answer—right or wrong—whenever a student was called on; he insisted also that students stand when they spoke so they could have practice in posture; he always corrected their speaking errors when they made them and saw to it that they repeated themselves correctly. What else could he do?

What else indeed! It is amazing that Mr. Church's students spoke at all. Every tactic he employed is all but guaranteed to ensure speech resistance in students. Why must students answer every time they are called on? What purpose is served when students stand to answer? Do they really develop good posture by standing to answer a question? When students are criticized and corrected publicly, do they attend to their errors? Or to their peers' reactions? Does repetition of a "correct" speech pattern become a part of a student's behavior when he repeats it only once, and then under public scrutiny?

Many students have problems that require special help. One particularly important problem exists for the student who comes from a home where a foreign language is spoken most of the time. For this student, learning good habits of expression in English is especially difficult. He will need more sensitive help than the average adolescent, particularly because of the embarrassment he may feel when speaking in front of a group.

There is considerable discussion regarding the appropriate ways of dealing with the special dialect of educationally deprived students. Such students may come from isolated rural America, or inner-city slums. Their speech patterns vary from "standard" English. Observers and linguistic scholars point out that many times this speech utilizes nuances missing from standard English. Yet most teachers are strong advocates of removing all traces of speaking which differ from the middle-class norm. The pros and cons of this discussion may be pursued by the interested student. The point to be made here is that any teacher must be sensitive to the personal meanings of a student's language and speech habits. Deviations from what the teacher considers correct should be carefully considered before any kind of public judgment or pointed effort towards change is made. The hazards of speaking a "different" kind of English in terms of job placement must be made clear to students. Teachers must also remember, however, that a reverse valuation is emerging: for instance, a candidate for radio announcer on a program beamed primarily at inner-city black residents must convey through his speech that he is "one of us," in the same way that a

Spanish-speaking announcer must utilize the idioms, phraseology, and dialect of the particular area of the country where he is located. The choices are broadening in terms of acceptability of speech differences, and new insights are also being obtained as to the relationships among speech, reading, writing, and general educational achievement.

Students who are shy or withdrawn in class probably utilize few opportunities to talk with other classmates and therefore have little chance to develop skill or confidence in presenting ideas. It is particularly important that they have experiences in circumstances that will develop skill and confidence which allow them to verbalize their attitudes and beliefs as well as their grasp of subject matter. Using small group procedures (see Chapter 9) is particularly helpful with such students.

Students with speech defects should of course receive the specialized training of therapists. If speech tests are not administered to students, it becomes the teacher's responsibility to refer these students to the proper agency of the school. As with introverts and students for whom English is a second language, the speech-defected adolescent must be accorded special consideration in the oral activities of the classroom.

Lecturing: A Special Kind of Communication

Some student teachers and beginning teachers at the secondary level tend not only to employ the lecture method above others, but tend, as well, to present paraphrases of college lectures they have heard. While the judicious use of lecture can be meaningful in many situations, most often it is actually a hindrance to learning in the secondary school.

While students are engaged in listening and thinking during a lecture, basically their role is a passive one: it is more difficult for them to discern the relevancy of the subject to their lives; it is easy for them to be distracted by the personality or appearance of the teacher, and there is always the danger of their "tuning out" on what is being said. For the teacher there is difficulty in evaluating the apparent attentive behavior of his listeners because there is little opportunity for feedback that will indicate how successfully he is communicating information and how thoroughly the students are comprehending. To provide maximum effectiveness when he does lecture, the teacher should:

Establish main points, provide a sense of order, or create a focus through which information may be viewed. He should not attempt to cover a subject in its entirety.

Utilize audiovisual devices whenever they are appropriate, to underscore the major points of the lecture or to illustrate those aspects which are particularly complicated or difficult to understand.

Ensure a sense of unity in the comments of the lecture; establish clearly at the beginning the theme, topic, or problem under consideration.

Be careful to speak at a pace students can follow. Time for reflection

should be allowed at proper intervals. The teacher's voice must be sufficient for everyone to hear, but without being strident or harsh. Diction is important in the lecture since frequently students will hear something completely different from what the teacher says ("blue bonnet plague" instead of "bubonic plague," for instance).

Allow for questions occasionally and call for further questions and comments at the conclusion of the lecture.

Be careful not to lecture for an entire period. Short lectures will ensure greater attention and, consequently, greater learning.

Give special attention to the opening and closure of the lecture: the opening, in order to set the tone of the lecture and capture students' attention; the closure, to summarize and emphasize the major points.

An excellent way of assessing lecturing skills is offered through videotaping, an experience increasingly available for student teachers as well as to teachers on an in-service basis. Also effective is the use of a tape recorder which allows the teacher to test his organization and presentation from an aural vantage point.

Nonverbal Behavior

Although this chapter is concerned with verbal skills, it should be pointed out that nonverbal communication between teachers and students is also important in the give and take of the classroom. As suggested earlier, nonverbal behaviors frequently support verbal expression; they shade the meanings of words, minimizing them or lending them emphasis. Frequently, it is the accompanying grimace or gesture which allows the listener an opportunity for better understanding and aids him in choosing his reaction.

The importance of their nonverbal behavior is frequently overlooked or dismissed by teachers—to the detriment of teaching effectiveness. Such nonverbal activities as smiling, nodding the head, gesturing approvingly, maintaining eye contact, exhibiting an interested expression, and moving close to the students, contribute a positive and reassuring effect. Their absence, or such negative behaviors as inattentiveness, boredom, scowling, or striking students, works in exactly the opposite way.

Especially during adolescence, students openly exhibit a great deal of nonverbal behavior. "Making faces" is part of all adolescent expression. Shrugs, eyes cast down or averted, clenched hands, slumped posture may all indicate attitudes that are not verbalized but that should be understood if contact is to be made among people.

To fail to monitor one's self for nonverbal behaviors is to fail to understand that appearance and performance are the mirrors of personality. And only when individuals are able to realize that outside image is failing to do what heart and mind desire, will they have the opportunity to align one with the other while at the same time perfecting human relationships.

RECOMMENDED READING

- Adams, W. Royce. *How To Read the Sciences*. Glenview, Ill.: Scott, Foresman and Company, 1969. W. Royce Adams and John Bigby. *How To Read the Humanities*. Glenview, Ill.: Scott, Foresman and Company, 1969. Charles Brown, W. Royce Adams, and Rolland Rogers. *How to Read the Social Studies*. Glenview, Ill.: Scott, Foresman Company, 1968. Work texts designed to aid in developmental reading. Self-help is the theme. Content and examples are like those students will encounter at increasingly higher levels of education.
- American Library Association. *Providing School Library Service for the Culturally Disadvantaged*. 1964 bulletin; June-January, 1965. A reprint of articles that appeared in the *American Library Association Bulletin*.
- "Books for Adults Beginning to Read," Adult Services Division, American Library Association, 50 East Huron Street, Chicago, Ill. 60611. Available on request.
- Catalog of Books and Instructional Materials, Adult Literacy Center, 2124 Bonar Street, Berkeley, Calif. 94702.
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- Culkin, John M., S.J. "A Schoolman's Guide to Marshall McLuhan," *Saturday Review*, March 18, 1967. General explanation of the theories of Marshall McLuhan, "oracle of the electric age," with respect to education.
- Ennis, Robert H. *Logic in Teaching*, Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1969. Offers specific recommendations concerning basic logical aspects of teaching, particularly classroom dialogue.
- Gans, Roma. *Common Sense in Teaching Reading*. Indianapolis, Ind.: The Bobbs-Merrill Company, Inc., 1963. Part 2 of this straightforward book is useful to secondary-school teachers through discussions of individual differences, need for practice, slower readers, and second-language readers.
- Hall, Edward T. "Listening Behavior: Some Cultural Differences," *Phi Delta Kappan*, L, March 1969, No. 7, 379-380. Hall develops the idea that "Reading cross-cultural behavior is inevitably full of pitfalls for everyone" by discussing specific ways in which teachers and students misunderstand one another's cultural listening patterns.
- . *The Silent Language*. Greenwich, Conn.: Fawcett Publishing, Inc., 1961. A leading anthropologist reveals how people communicate without words, and how behavior reflects a nation's influence on world affairs.
- Harris, Beecher H. "Helping to Read: A Proposal," *Phi Delta Kappan*, L, May 1969, No. 9, 530-533. Provocative proposal to abandon the concept of reading as a subject and substitute the concept of reading as an act unique to each child. However controversial the thesis presented, the article is rich in humane observations about teaching and students and reading.
- Hayakawa, S. I. (ed.). *The Use and Misuse of Language*. Greenwich, Conn.: Fawcett Publications, Inc. Selected essays from *ETC: A Review of General Semantics*. Exploring the problems of communication in contemporary life.
- Herber, Harold L. *Teaching Reading in Content Areas*. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1970. Indicates ways in which all teachers can introduce appropriate reading skills in all subjects.
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- Hurst, Charles G., Jr. *Psychological Correlates in Dialectolalia: Cooperative Research*

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Medium and Message

resources for learning

6

Learning in the modern classroom demands access to materials, people, experience, and tools which supply both depth and richness to the program of study. The range of these resources is constantly widening; as teachers and students learn how to use them they will discover that teaching and learning can be mutually rewarding.

Variety in Learning Experiences and Resources

When a teacher makes use of direct and vicarious experiences he automatically employs variety in learning resources. But how does the teacher plan the details of that variety in addition to everything else he is supposed to do? Actually, variety in learning experiences follows very naturally when planning starts with student interest and experience since those interests and experiences are themselves different at different times.

For example, a teacher of social problems might plan a discussion on developing worthwhile leisure interests (in order to lead into a study of the problem of leisure and recreation in an industrial civilization). He might discuss with students how they spent the summer months. Several important points would probably arise. First, recreation costs money; second, there are not enough recreational facilities in town; third, "our parents won't let us do the things we

want to do in our leisure time." On the basis of these points, a teacher could foresee such variety of activities as these:

- Use of film or film strip for background on community recreation
- Community study to see how much recreation costs
- Use of reference works on recreation and related topics
- Library research to see what else has been written on this subject
- Interviews with a local recreation commission to see what is available in the community
- Panel discussion of the findings from the activities above
- Quiz on how much is known about recreation in town
- Individual oral reports on findings
- Essay examination on problem topics in the area of recreation
- Poster and bulletin board displays on desired and desirable recreational activities
- Written reports on a specific phase of the subject of survey
- Individual scrapbooks of advertisements, newspaper clippings, and so on, on recreation and health
- Evaluation of commercial recreation offerings, including television and radio
- Diaries by students of their own recreation habits

These are some of the many experiences that can evolve into a single unit of work when instruction starts with immediate student interests and activities.

Variety is not only important in any single class, but year after year different approaches to the same subject matter are needed. The first reason is that each class is different. For example, no two eleventh-grade groups in chemistry can be quite the same. Each has a different assortment of young people, with different home and school situations, needs, and interests.

The second reason for a change in approach is its effect on the personality of the teacher. To do the same things five periods a day for ten months, year after year, is bound to have a deadening effect on his spark and interest. For the sake of sheer self-preservation as a person, the teacher must seek new approaches to subject matter.

Third, the subject matter one teaches changes. New ideas and new discoveries mean that some concepts taught in today's chemistry, for instance, may be archaic by next year. Outmoded subject matter is as much a fraud as uninformed instruction.

People as Resources

Personal contact is one of the most important, and most effective, sources for enlarging experience. The opportunities for such contacts in the school community are many.

Immediate to the classroom are other school personnel and students. Whenever the ability and interest of administrators, supervisors, helping teachers,

and other faculty members are found, they should be used. Frequently such people are never utilized. Yet often these resource people are simply awaiting the opportunity and invitation to meet students on new ground and with new areas of contact.

Working in a school near Washington, D.C., I was happy to discover within my own school system a variety of interesting people who were delighted to spend time relating their experiences and enthusiasms to my students. Our principal had once been a handwriting expert for the FBI; our band instructor, a soloist for a major symphony orchestra; our Shop teacher, a Peace Corps volunteer whose hobby was karate; our cafeteria manager, a ten-year resident of Thailand. One supervisor was a professional writer; our pupil personnel worker had been a computer programmer. Another teacher was an amateur expert in space exploration, and another supervisor was a student of Zen Buddhism. For all the possibilities of my core curriculum classroom, I'd hit the jackpot; but then, I'd also looked for it!

Students, themselves, can be invaluable resources. The wise teacher capitalizes upon his students' experiences and interests as much as on those of "outsiders." Many times students have traveled to, and sometimes lived in, parts of the nation and the world which are relevant to classroom study. Their impressions, experiences, and mementoes are first-hand opportunities for stimulation and investigation, as are those of their parents and other relatives. Students' job experiences are also important as resources—not only the substance of the work itself, but the procedure for getting and keeping a job, the responsibilities of the "world of work" and the experience of meeting and dealing with new and different people: all are fodder for the formulation, expression, and discussion of ideas and extending experiences of others. Many students have had dealings with police, courts, or with welfare and other social agencies. They can give an "insider's view" if they wish. In every school, there are students who have pursued personal interests to such an extent that they qualify as amateur experts. A teacher will find it useful to make an inventory card for each student to get an idea of these resources. Such a card might look like this:

Name _____ Class _____ Period _____

Parents' Occupations:

Parents' Hobbies:

Travel Experiences (parents, other relatives):

Travel Experiences (yours):

Your Hobbies:

Other things that are of special interest to you:

(for example: church group)

Whether the interest lies in a special phase of science, music, art, sports, or in some other area related to school, it can usually be woven into the pattern of

the classroom. And students also participate in community activities—attending conferences or 4-H meetings or entering in road-races or meeting public figures.

Resource Visitors

The use of visitors in the high-school classroom is probably more common than any other method of utilizing community resources. Some community workers make numerous trips to schools as a regular part of their work. Police chiefs, probation officers, traffic court judges, fire chiefs, health officers, directors of recreation, all recognize the importance of informing future citizens about the kind of community service they perform. There is a certain glamour about seeing and hearing the police chief in person. He is both more formidable, and also more human, than the students anticipate; the law becomes more than just "Thou shalt not . . ." An effective way of helping to dispel racial prejudice or misunderstanding—as well as opening students' eyes to a broader understanding of community makeup—is to invite individuals such as a Chinese dentist or a Negro judge to speak.

In areas where relations between the community and the authorities of the community are strained or misunderstood, the school has an obligation to bring students and authorities together so that they may understand and educate one another. As frequently as possible, school visitations by community figures should correspond with student visits to the physical circumstances in which these figures work. Seeing a police station, a jail, a courtroom, a hospital, a fire house, a library, or an employment office, contributes to a sense of the reality of institutions which to many students are mysterious, threatening, or actually unknown.

Often when the resource person from outside the school appears in the history, science, mathematics, or foreign language classroom, he can say things the teacher cannot say. He is believed when the teacher may be doubted; he is able to inspire young people when the taken-for-granted teacher goes unheeded.

Talking to my social studies class, I discovered that students generally refused to accept as fact much of the information they had uncovered about living conditions in areas of the Middle East. When their incredulity persisted, one student suggested that her mother, a former Iranian princess, might be willing to talk to the class. In two ensuing visits—she was that popular and successful—the students came to accept that not only what they had read was true, but indeed was frequently understated. In addition, however, the students discovered a whole new appreciation for the culture of the Middle East, from eating customs to the beauty of the Koran. So interested and delighted was the visitor by her contact with the students that she volunteered to return each year. Until she moved to another part of the country four years later, she was a stimulating and exciting guest for each succeeding group of students.

Individuals of the community often have special knowledge, as of a foreign

country; or a special expertise, as in building roads or counseling drug addicts or entertaining professionally, that the average teacher cannot hope to have. A World War I veteran can make that part of history far more vivid than any text. Knowledge that such people live in his area inspires the young person to take more interest and pride in his own community, gives him goals for which to strive, shows him in flesh and blood the complexity and fascination of the twentieth century.

However, for all that the resource visitor brings, he can be an utter failure. Teachers may then become cynical about using resource visitors at all. Yet the fault as often as not lies with the teacher and his students. Few visitors are in touch with groups of adolescents; they do not know much about them, their interests, ideas, or level of understanding. Teachers invite into their classrooms those people who are successful in their own sphere, but this very success may place a barrier between them and high-school students. Many experts cannot share their knowledge without using language that may be gibberish to secondary-school students. Sometimes the teacher may have to interview such persons himself and transmit the special knowledge to his students. Prior to inviting an expert, teachers and individual or groups of students should make his acquaintance; if this is not feasible, at least his ability to interest students should be checked with other members of the faculty and with students.

In deciding whether to invite a particular visitor, teachers and students might consider some of the following questions:

Is he interested in adolescents or does he have a negative attitude toward young people? If he feels that high-school students are not very admirable, his attitude will show when he talks with them. Whatever message he may have will not be conveyed, but his attitude will be.

Does he ordinarily speak in an overly academic fashion? A person who speaks formally, in a complicated and abstruse way, will never be able to drop this manner before a classroom and should not be invited.

Does he ramble and constantly get off the subject? A raconteur may be suitable for a social event, but if certain content is to be covered, this kind of person is hopeless in the classroom. He cannot be counted on to stick to his subject, and the hour may be lost in a maze of irrelevant comments.

Is he a jokester? While he may amuse the class for an hour, their knowledge will not be enlarged. It is not necessary to be serious at all times, but if the content to be covered is serious, it is out of place to have someone who is merely an entertainer.

Does he express strong prejudices? It is fine for a person to be convinced that his hobby or job is the best. But sometimes visitors use an audience situation to express pet hates. If these are directed against any group represented in the class, it can be most unfortunate. Moreover, the classroom must not be used for propaganda purposes unless both sides can be heard.

Will students confuse him or offend him? It takes an abundance of poise sometimes to answer the innocent questions of youth. A community member should not be exposed to such questions unless he can stand up to them with

ease and humor. If he gets incensed because young people ask "such dumb questions," then he probably will not be a good resource person.

With these and other questions in mind, teachers and students can interview a prospective resource visitor and be fairly sure of the degree of success he would have with a class.

Preparing for the Resource Visitor

There are ways the teacher, and the class, can make sure that the visit of a guest speaker is pleasant and profitable for all concerned. Here are some suggestions.

Brief the visitor ahead of time. A list of student questions can be composed by a student committee and presented to the visitor. Probably the questions should be personally presented, since the visitor at that time can review the questions with the students and make sure that he understands students' interests.

Prepare the introduction. When the student or teacher introduces the visitor to the class, he should make it clear that the visitor will speak for 10 minutes, or whatever the time allotted, and then will answer questions. Stating the time period to the visitor with the class as audience is a kind of gentle blackmail. It takes a rugged individualist to overlook this kind of time limit. Often a visitor is more aware of a student chairman than of another adult and is more likely to comply with his requests.

Request permission to interrupt. Either the teacher or the student chairman can ask the visitor, with the class as audience, if it is permissible to interrupt if something doesn't seem clear. This provides a needed wedge if the speaker rambles far off the topic, gets boring, or becomes too academic.

List questions on the board. The questions that have been given previously to the speaker may be written on the board and the speaker placed so that he and the class can see the list. This keeps the speaker from spending all his time on one question.

Use a group interview. A group of students may be especially interested in the field the visitor is to discuss. Perhaps these students have read about it and are ready with intelligent, and significant, questions. Then the visitor and the interviewing group are placed in front of the room and encouraged to proceed as though no audience were present. This prevents the visitor from making speeches and ensures that student questions will be answered.

Prepare the class. In discussing the area on which the visitor is to speak to the class, the teacher or student committee may make a point of raising important issues. The class may then be divided into groups. (See Chapter 9 for directions in setting up groups.) Each group will write out questions and assign responsibility to students for asking the questions.

Contrary to common opinion, most adolescents are attentive and polite to visitors. Students will usually greet the break in classroom routine with interest, appreciation, and commendable behavior.

The Field Trip

Almost all teachers acknowledge the value of field trips, yet many students go through secondary school with no field-trip experience. The most significant deterrent is the organization of the typical secondary-school day. When the student has only one 50-minute period with a teacher, it will obviously cause a major disruption if this teacher wishes to undertake a field trip lasting for more than a single class period. It is also clear that few worthwhile field trips can be conducted in 50 minutes. Moreover, the teacher himself must face a different class each hour, and in good conscience he cannot often slough this responsibility off on another faculty member or assign his students to the library.

Can these barriers be overcome? Approval of the school administration and cooperation by other faculty members are essential. If a field trip means encroaching on the class time of another teacher, then clearly no teacher is justified in asking for such a dispensation very often. If, however, a good reciprocal arrangement can be worked out ("If you will excuse my students for an industrial arts field trip, I'll be happy to excuse yours for the PTA concert rehearsals"), the field trip can be used more frequently.

As more schools experiment with the modular type of schedule, in which subjects and classes are not scheduled every day at the same hour, then field trips are even more feasible. Such schedules are established to build in flexibility to provide a whole day, for example, for one subject area; the class would not necessarily meet again that week—or if it did reconvene it would be scheduled in terms of the time needed to utilize the field-trip experience.

Planning

Although many schools have established rules for field trips to guide the beginning teacher, the actual planning of a field trip is sufficiently time-consuming that a teacher can rarely expect to make many during a semester. If, for example, the teacher has five classes, he is confronted with the mass of detail for five different field trips or the logistics of a field trip involving two or more classes. The very thought of this kind of planning is enough to discourage most teachers. The planning problems may, however, be solved in a number of different ways. First, the preplanning may be done almost wholly by students. With student committees, the teacher may find that most of the work can be done for him. A simple outline, planned by teacher and students, will suffice for a framework:

1. What is the purpose of the field trip?
2. Where can we go? What places will allow our class to visit?
3. How do we get there? What transportation is needed? Where can we get it? How much will it cost?
4. How long will it take?
5. Whose permission must we have? How do we obtain it? (Principal, parent, other authority)

questions, and suggested activities—which can seriously hinder a creative approach to the specific needs of a group. In addition, most textbooks also have annotated teachers' editions which explain exactly how to employ the textbook as a blueprint for the course. If he does not wish to, the teacher need not think about what he is going to teach or how he will go about it.

Textbooks, because they are neat packages of information, also contain their own generalizations and conclusions. What is left, then, for students to do? In the process of digesting the content of the textbook and accepting and remembering the generalizations and conclusions, what happens to the process of critical thinking? What happens to the process of creative discovery? A recent poll conducted in a student newspaper reported that among the top five complaints against teachers in general is that of relying on textbooks as the basis of class work.

Should textbooks be outlawed then? No, but the textbook should be used as only one aide to learning. It is only one resource in what should be an ever-growing storehouse of learning materials.

In an age of information explosion, textbooks have a way of becoming very quickly outdated. To rely on one text, then, is to diminish the scope and depth of the material offered to students. The best of textbooks—and there are many excellent ones—can provide only a broad, general approach to a subject area. Such broadness and generality lead almost always to a superficial presentation. This superficiality is frequently demonstrated in the bland approach that attempts to be objective and to satisfy a wide range of potential buyers. The result is that much material that would generate discussion and further investigation is eliminated. A preponderance of factual material also does little in encouraging value development. Another problem is that students are also in danger of believing that once a textbook is mastered, the subject matter it deals with is also mastered. Finally, textbooks do not accommodate the range of intellectual or experiential needs in any group.

Textbooks are helpful and meaningful when they are used as one of a variety of resources. Simply providing several copies of many textbooks will enable students to discover that there are many approaches to subject matter; that different organization, as well as the use of illustrative materials, offer varying points of view whose multiple value far exceeds that of a single text.

The hallmark of most textbooks is good planning and logical presentation. These strengths should also be used in developing study skills and in aiding less able students in their individual progress.

Choosing Textbooks

Beginning teachers may not often have a hand in choosing textbooks for their classes. Nevertheless, they should know how to judge the strengths and weaknesses of the books selected for them. First of all, teachers should see how well the authors of the textbook seem to know the adolescent. Does the book relate the interests, needs, abilities, backgrounds, and experiences of adolescents

to the content presented? Is the style brisk and alive rather than overdignified or dead? Is the format attractive? Are the illustrations relevant? Unless the book is linked to the adolescent, the textbook deters, rather than encourages, learning. The teacher should also ask if there is an adequate coverage of material and whether there are open-ended sections or suggested activities and questions that encourage discussion and problem solving. The teacher must always check for accuracy or distortion of information. A textbook designed for use in a state history course contains this observation:

The slave's condition had its advantages. He usually worked the accepted work week of the colony—from sunrise to sundown daily except Sunday. But he enjoyed long holidays especially at Christmas. He did not work as hard as the average free laborer, since he did not have to worry about losing his job. In fact the slave enjoyed what might be called comprehensive social security. Generally speaking, his food was plentiful, his clothing adequate, his cabin warm, his health protected, his leisure carefree. He did not have to worry about hard times, unemployment or old age.¹

In another instance, a recent biology textbook contains a chart of the development of man in an evolutionary progression which depicts an Anglo-Saxon male as the culmination of the process.² While other sources available to students may also contain incorrect or slanted material, the opportunity for students to accept faulty information as correct is greater when the only reference available is a single text out of which the class operates and which the teacher does not challenge.

Finally, the teacher must consider whether the textbook is attractive in its format and durable. There is nothing more forbidding than a drab textbook!

Some evidence should be offered by the publishers that the development of concepts, attitudes, and skills in the text has been tested in the classroom. This evidence, presented to schools by publishers, should include analysis of the vocabulary burden; systematic provision for repetition of key data, summary, and review; and suggestions for a wide range of supplemental materials and activities.

Almost any departure from the deadly read-recite-quiz format for textbook study should be utilized. If certain pages are assigned for reading, groups of students can make up questions about the content on the basis of "What concepts or facts or information ought anyone to remember ten years from now?" These can form the basis for a classroom game, an oral quiz, or a short test. Different texts can be assigned to the class, all covering the same general content; and, again in groups, students reading the different texts can compare how the same data is treated, try to figure out why the textbooks differ, and come up with a "new version" by rewriting the material assigned. This could lead them to nontext sources, too, to amplify or verify data. Students can be

¹ Virginia Council on Human Relations, "What Picture of America Does Your Child Receive from His School Books?" (Leaflet, no date).

² J. H. Otto and A. Towle, *Modern Biology*. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1965, p. 548.

asked to look over the questions at the end of the chapter or assigned section and to select that question which seems to get at the most significant item or idea conveyed. They need not necessarily answer the question, but each must defend his choice of the question! In so doing, the student will inevitably have to do some evaluation of the other material and probably end up answering the question! If the text is outmoded, the teacher can put one sentence on the board and ask the students to consider it. For example, one textbook stated that "many large cities have streetcars."³ The city the students lived in did not; what was wrong with the text? They proceeded to check the copyright date of the text. From there they went to the problem of defining "many large cities." Then they went back to study the public transportation in their own city: would the statement have applied to their city at the time the text was written, and if so, to what extent? Thus, even an inaccurate or misleading or even wrong statement can be used. Textbook pictures are another source of elaboration. The questions to be raised could be regarding authenticity, relevance, and data provided by the picture not related to the text: all of these are possibilities. Students can evaluate whether the picture is worth the room it takes up in the text or whether another kind of illustration—or none—would be better. Thus the dry, dull textbook, even the outdated one, can be used in an exciting and educational fashion.

Working with slower students in geography, one teacher asked them to study the pictures that illustrated a chapter on India. The students were asked to list those things about India which they had learned from the pictures. A sizable and interesting list was compiled. Next, the students were asked to list those things they thought they knew about India from all previous experiences. Again the list was lengthy, if somewhat farfetched. With a variety of materials—using many resources other than the textbook—the teacher led these slow readers into research that proved and disproved what students "knew." The end result was a collectively written and illustrated "textbook" that was presented to the school library.

Paperback books are being increasingly employed in classrooms from elementary school onward. The list of subjects available in softcover edition is extensive; the books are attractive, inexpensive, and easy to handle. More important, they allow easy access to materials that can satisfy interest and supply resources in a host of areas.⁴

Whose Library Is It?

I didn't go to a library for four years after graduation from high school. I hated the sight of them. My worst experiences were in the high-school library,

³ H. Millard Clements, William R. Fiedler, and B. Robert Tabachnick, *Social Study: Inquiry in Elementary Classrooms*. Indianapolis: The Bobbs-Merrill Company, Inc., 1966, p. 155

⁴ John Egerton, "Paperbacks Are Better than Pool," *Southern Education Report*, 3, May 1968, No. 9, 21-26.

but a few unpleasant ones happened at my local public library, too. In both places, the librarians acted as though every book in the place belonged to them personally and each one reigned over the premises as though they were tombs. Students were afraid to ask for help for fear of ridicule by the librarians who always seemed to be filing cards in a box or loudly shushing people who made little or no noise. It was an awful experience. Last year, at last, I got up my courage to use the public library again. I finally asked myself, "Whose library is it, anyway?"

Just as the bubonic plague is a thing of the past, it is to be hoped that the kind of stereotyped librarian who hordes books and maintains martial order is also a thing of the past. For if libraries are not clearly inviting and pleasant places, they are surely going to elicit apathy or rejection in people when they leave school. It is not sufficient that materials be stored in a library; it is essential that they be easily accessible—indeed enticing—to students who come to work there. Pleasant and helpful personnel are also essential if students are to be successful in their work and receptive to a library's function within a community. Increasingly, libraries are becoming comfortable, attractive workshops. And, fortunately, the services available to students are increasing as the idea grows that books, magazines, and other resources should allow entertainment and pleasure as well as impart information.

But it is the teacher's obligation to see that students discover how to make the most of library resources. While such instruction is given in English classes, each subject teacher should aid students to make use of the special materials in his subject area. Each teacher should also reinforce for students the responsibilities of working among large numbers of people. Subject-area teachers must share in the responsibility of seeing that students become familiar with public library facilities. A field trip may be in order if only a few students have been there previously. A conducted tour, meeting a librarian, and perhaps obtaining library cards can do much to ensure that students will become pleasantly familiar with one of their most valuable lifetime community resources.

Whose library is it? Everybody's!

The Chalkboard Hasn't Disappeared Yet

Whether it's black, brown, or green the chalkboard is a vital resource for both teacher and student. A kind of public scratch pad, it allows clarifications and illustrations to be more immediate and relevant than other resources permit. The chalkboard is probably still the most effective device for aiding students to focus attention and to see and to understand quickly.

The chalkboard also allows for economic use of class time. Assignments, announcements, reminders, spellings for new and difficult terms, and drill exercises can all be placed on the chalkboard before class and be either utilized immediately or covered by a map or taped construction paper until needed. Colored chalk is especially effective for indicating structure and order, as well

as for indicating emphasis. Graphs, diagrams, and other pictorial designs are also enhanced by the use of colored chalk.

In classrooms with limited chalkboard space, many teachers employ construction or wrapping paper and crayon or felt-tip pen to list assignments, announcements, or reminders. If a prospective teacher has not had wide experience in writing on chalkboards, he should seize the opportunity to do so before assuming a teacher assignment. Legible chalkboard penmanship that is large enough to be easily read from the back of the room is essential.

Bulletin Boards: When, Why, for Whom?

Just as all other resources available to teachers and students are educational in purpose, so are bulletin boards. While they should be decorative to the classroom setting, their function is to teach and to reveal learning.

How often changes are made in bulletin board displays must be determined by the activities of the classroom since, in all but a few cases, they will reflect the study of the class. Certainly, no display should stand for longer than three weeks. In addition to the monotony of such a display, paper materials become faded and dog-eared after that space of time. A long outdated bulletin board also may suggest to the casual visitor (or confirm to the frequent one) that the teacher's attitude is either static in content or approach or that the teacher is limited in his awareness of how to use resource materials and lacking in sensitivity to other people.

In addition to their function of communicating or revealing learning, bulletin boards are important because they allow students the opportunity to exercise a variety of creative skills in a meaningful, direct way. Selecting the purpose and theme of a bulletin board, identifying the means of presentation, and executing the presentation—both in personnel and materials—all allow young people opportunities in responsibility and group dynamics, as well as in critical and creative thinking that are both honest and real.

If bulletin boards are educational, are they intended to educate anyone besides students? No and yes. Their basic, operating goal is always directed toward the students of a class. If they achieve this goal, they will, by their nature, be instructive or informative to others who may see them. Classroom bulletin boards do not exist to convince parents or other school personnel that "something is going on in here."

With rare exception, bulletin boards should be the work of students. The first display of the year will probably have to be the teacher's, although as time passes he may use for his first board, student-prepared materials that have been preserved for this purpose.

Some guidelines in the creation of bulletin boards should be discussed with students. Principles of presentation and arrangement that might be agreed upon include:

Use color wisely. It is effective in attracting attention, showing boundaries, indicating classification, providing contrast for lettering and other displayed

items. Be sure to use harmonizing colors. Red, orange, and yellow attract attention; blue, green, and purple attract less attention. Generally, background colors should be less brilliant than the subject displayed.

Consider the eye level of the reader. If there is material to be read, be sure that those who are expected to read it can see the print without difficulty.

State the theme through the title. The message of the display should be evident through the title as well as through what is displayed.

Use legible lettering that is consistent with the theme. Ornamental or gimmicky lettering should be avoided. Use a single color for titles and lettering. Remember that horizontal lettering is far more effective than vertical lettering.

Popular advertising techniques that are frequently intended to shock or puzzle viewers are generally not useful for classroom bulletin boards. In order to serve their purpose, bulletin boards must be clear and direct.

Class time should be provided for students to examine bulletin boards (and perhaps to read small printed material, if and when it is used.) The imaginative teacher will find ways to incorporate bulletin boards in lessons (motivation, drill, review, discussion), thereby making them everyday teaching tools.

Television and Motion Pictures

The motion picture and the television program are similar in the kind of learning experiences they can provide. Both have the unique ability to show the world in action through sight and sound and color. It is possible to watch the drama of human relationships, real and imagined. It is possible to transport the viewer to places and events distant in time or in space. Microscopic life can be made to fill the screen. An explosion of a bomb, which in reality took a fraction of a second to occur, can be studied for minutes through slow-motion photography. Conversely, the unfolding of a flower, which in reality took hours, can be seen in a few moments through time-lapse photography. The complicated workings of a giant machine can be simplified as the camera focuses on one relevant operation at a time. Through animation photography, the operation can even be viewed from within, as in the case of the cylinders of an internal-combustion engine.

The first criterion for selecting motion pictures and television programs is that they should exploit these unique advantages. An instructional motion picture or television program should not be merely a photographed lecture or a series of still pictures or an entertaining travelogue. Keep in mind that impact will be weakened if the experience is burdened with commentary about action that is never seen on the screen. Some of the most exciting recent educational (and commercial) films are documentaries, with an explanatory narration, or completely without words.

As the motion picture and the television program have unique advantages, so they have special disadvantages. Both present the material for learning at a fixed pace. The student is therefore forced to move along at the speed determined by the producer of the material. This disadvantage can be overcome to

some extent with the motion picture, since the film, and scenes within the film, can be reshown. But to promote the most efficient learning, both motion pictures and television programs should take account of the psychological principle of pacing. In simplest terms, this means that material of intellectual complexity or emotional intensity must be presented in deliberately planned intervals that permit the viewer to mull over what he has seen, heard, and felt. If enough time is allowed, the learner is then ready to accept another difficult or tense sequence. But if he is hit hard again and again without time to recover, his preoccupation with the first blow may shut off further receptivity: the viewer stops learning. In a film demonstrating the graphing of algebraic functions, for example, students would soon "tune out" if they were to be shown all the processes of computing a table of values, placing points on a graph, sketching the curve, and identifying geometric shapes without time to reflect, question, and practice each of the steps involved. Here is an instance where 8-millimeter film (discussed later in this chapter) could be put to excellent use. In a series of "single-concept" installments of 4 or 5 minutes, shown on an inexpensive projector with instant installation cartridges and continual replay as needed, students can see and perfect each step separately, repeating those with which they have difficulty.⁵

The problem of paced selection is particularly acute in the motion picture and the television program because these are expensive media. Producers have a tendency to overload the typical 20-minute motion picture or the half-hour television program with learning material just because it costs so much to provide these few minutes. The idea seems to be to appeal to the greatest number of teachers. If enough concepts or skills or attitudes or appreciations are packed in, the argument runs, almost everybody will see something in it that he teaches. With respect to learning, this is, of course, an utterly false kind of economy. Films and programs in which so much material is concentrated are completely meaningless to most students.⁶

Also important in the selection of motion pictures and television programs is the existence of a good teaching pattern. For example, the film or program should employ sound means of motivating the student. This may mean that unfamiliar material has been set in familiar surroundings to facilitate engaging students in the problem. Or it may mean that actors the same age as the students have been used. To sustain interest, the film or program should challenge the students to work along, at least mentally, as the action unfolds. Corollary problems not covered in the film or program may be directly suggested by the actors or commentator. In the closing sequences, the film or program may

⁵ Louis Forsdale (ed.), *8mm. Sound Film and Education*. New York: Teachers College Press, Columbia University, 1962, p. 16.

⁶ Mark A. May, "Word Picture Relationship in Audio Visual Presentations: The Acquisition of Skills, Concepts and Understandings." In *Instructional Process and Media Innovation*, Robert A. Weisgerber (ed.). Skokie, Ill.: Rand McNally & Company, 1968, pp. 18-39. See also Robert Trouers, "The Transmission of Information to Human Receivers," *AV Communication Review*, 12, Winter 1964, pp. 375-385.

have the actors or commentator speak directly to the students about their responsibility for further exploration of the problem, or leave the issue unresolved and open, thereby inviting class discussion and further study.

Television: Some Special Considerations

Increasing developments in national and local educational television should make better use of television possible both in and out of the classroom. Where television is available in the school, there are many opportunities for class viewing which allow immediate follow up. Programs scheduled on commercial television are sometimes useful during school time, too. At present, most such programs are probably of greatest assistance in science and social studies classes. The innovative teacher, though, may find relevant material in programs that do not immediately suggest relationship to his subject.

Assignment of any outside experience with television (or motion pictures or radio) must be handled thoughtfully. Not all students have access to these resources. Since it would be unfair to embarrass or penalize them for this inaccessibility, an alternate choice should be open to them. No outside assignment in any of the mass media should be accorded any less preparation or follow up than is given to a classtime experience. Indeed, since time will intervene between preparation, viewing, and follow up, the teacher must provide safeguards of simplicity and restatement which will enable students to make the most of their exposure. Providing students with take-home guide questions or an imaginative "reporting sheet" that requires them to list major points or observations will help them to focus more clearly on the program at home. An opportunity to "recap" the experience, questioning for clarity, will enable students to comment more intelligently and to discuss in depth the larger issues of the presentation. An opportunity for critical insight can be developed by asking each student to pretend he is the critic for a particular magazine. For instance, students could be "reviewers" of a television program or a film for the *PTA Journal*, *Esquire*, *Teen Scene*, *TV Guide*, *Better Homes and Gardens*, or *Seventeen*.

In viewing all the media, students need training in skills that allow them to understand both the special nature of the medium and what it permits and restricts.⁷ The eye of the camera and the ear of the microphone are not all-encompassing any more than are the eyes and ears of any human being. Indeed, because they may be especially restrictive in order to convey their particular thesis, they may observe less than a person would in a real situation. This may be demonstrated to students by showing them a large photograph on which all parts but one section (or detail) are covered. Attention and discussion around the question, "What is this picture about?" should follow. Then a larger area of the picture, incorporating other details, should be revealed and discussed, and so on. This experience can be related to what happens when people are

⁷ Dale, Edgar, *Audiovisual Methods in Teaching*. (3rd ed.) New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1969.

exposed to an experience containing so many elements that they are unable to concentrate on the details of only one. Students need to know the special focusing attributes that the camera and the microphone possess. Their ability to magnify, to explore from extraordinary angles, to distort can all be dynamic and exciting ways of experiencing that stretch far beyond the normal possibilities of daily living. Again, students can be helped to see the agility of the camera's eye through a bulletin board display that utilizes photographs whose effects are created through the techniques mentioned above. Can such a display be prepared to correlate with science, music, art, English, history, industrial arts, home economics, and physical education?

Recent developments in television recording equipment, which allows filming and instant replay, as well as the taping and storage of commercial and school programs, suggest possibilities that are limited only by the imagination of teachers and students. A large number of learning experiences can be enhanced through the videotaping of student performance, followed by a developmental critique and reapplication of student effort. On-the-spot filming out of the classroom, whether in the school building or away from it, can allow students to collect information in a unique manner that permits analysis—in some instances—of incidents and comments otherwise illusive. Recording of programs—during and after school hours—for use at more appropriate times, or storage of such programs for repeated use, will expand the ways in which these resources can add to the richer life of the classroom.

Motion Pictures: Some Special Considerations

What has been said about the use of television programs in the classroom is generally true about the use of motion pictures. Films that have been created for use on a theater screen, however, raise special considerations. The picture quality of theater films is inevitably larger and clearer than that of television. Color is truer, as are the contrasts possible in blacks and whites. Subtle as these effects may be, they contribute to one's acceptance of the two media. The fact that images are larger than life, and that they are clearer than television images, gives them greater dramatic force. The fact that most students take television for granted may also add to the impact of seeing a film projected on a screen rather than emanating from the familiar "box."

In addition to educational films mentioned earlier, teachers should familiarize themselves with the numerous commercial films available. Remembering that all education should allow for value development, it is wise to consider the use of such films as *The Bridge*, *Abandon Ship*, and *The Lion in Winter* in social studies classes, *Fear Strikes Out* in physical education classes, *West Side Story* in music classes, *Oedipus the King* and *Romeo and Juliet* in English classes. Other choices might include *The Island* (geography), *Citizen Kane* (psychology), the silent film *Metropolis* (sociology), *The Friendly Persuasion* (home economics), *2001: A Space Odyssey* (science), and the short film *A Dancer's World* (modern dance).

An interesting use of film might be made in a humanities class by utilizing the full-length film of *Cyrano de Bergerac* and then the 20-minute film of the ballet *Cyrano de Bergerac*. If the viewing of the films were to come after the reading of Rostand's play, a study of historical setting and an investigation into the life of the real Cyrano—perhaps along with study of the role of dance, music, drama, art and French culture and history—then tremendous insights could be gained. Not only would students have the opportunity to examine the films for their own merits, but they also would be able to make comparisons and contrasts and be able to synthesize isolated learnings. An advanced French class could go further and compare the French and English translations.

Catalogs of commercial films which may be rented for classroom use are available in public libraries or from film distribution companies and also from film depositories at universities.

Perfection of 8-millimeter sound-track film and equipment, and experiments still in progress, suggest a variety of ways in which this inexpensive resource may be used. In classroom situations where students can learn skills through simple example or explanation, the use of 8-millimeter film allows individualized instruction in the same way that equipment in an electronic language laboratory allows students to progress at their own speeds and in many areas. The fact that film and equipment of this kind are compact and less expensive makes their use feasible at two important levels.

Homemade movies, usually 8-millimeter film, are also of practical advantage as a classroom resource. With a sound track, 8-millimeter film can perform in the same way as videotape except that the film must be processed and an 8-millimeter projector must be used. The time delay for film processing may be an important factor in deciding whether or not to use this resource. On the other hand, the relative costs and accessibility (when compared with videotaping) may outweigh the inconvenience of time lapse.⁸

One creative teacher arranged for his students to make their own 3-minute films developing an aspect of English study. Each student wrote his own script, organized its production, and filmed the color-sound movies himself. In addition to knowledge gained about film and movies themselves, "His students had enlisted the help of parents and friends, had creatively used and learned about their community."⁹

Related indirectly to television and motion pictures is the use of flat pictures: photographs, drawings and one-dimension illustrations of all kinds. Next to the chalkboard, flat pictures are probably the teacher's most immediate way of supplying needed images. A comprehensive file of pictures (as well as other of what the famous teacher Comenius called "realia") is a must in the classroom. The availability of such material in magazines and newspapers, as well as through educational supply companies, is inexhaustible. Student- or teacher-made photographs are superb additions to a field trip, or to almost any project undertaken.

⁸ For a broad view of 8 millimeter film for school use see Forsdale (footnote 5).

⁹ M. Laughlin, Frank, "Teacher of the Year," *Educators Guide to Media and Method*, January 1969, p. 4.

Tapes, Tape Recordings, and Radio

Realizing that emphasis is only on sound, the same application to the classroom of radio, tape recordings, and records can be made as with films and television. The purpose in all cases is to enrich classroom activity with the sight and sound of reality. Because they deal only with sound, radio, tape recordings, and records are generally more limited in their application. Their use demands greater skill on the part of young people who have grown up in a world of noise. To use these one-sense resources effectively, students will have to be able to distinguish between "hearing" and "listening," which is focused attention, and they need to perfect the latter (see Chapter 5).

As with television programs during the school day, radio broadcasts may be used in the classroom or tape-recorded (as with out-of-school programs) for later use. Records are invaluable in many areas because they are permanent, of high quality, and inexpensive. While all of these audio resources are valuable in the learning process, the same care and consideration must be given to their selection and use as with any other classroom resource.

Tape recorders and tapes are now widely accessible to classroom teachers. The potential of the tape recorder is great since it can be easily and unobtrusively employed. It can serve as a substitute for the teacher in drill, review, or quiz situations, and act as a verbatim secretary for presentations, meetings, or oral testing.

When the tape recorder is used as a substitute for the teacher, it allows individual and structured attention to those in need of it, while freeing the teacher to work with other students in less mechanical activities. Of course, it also saves the teacher time and the monotony of repetition. In situations where individuals have been absent during important presentations, discussions, or lectures, the tape recorder allows opportunity for experiencing the activity and the resultant questions and comments that were elicited. The significance of classroom give-and-take—frequently of tremendous importance—has been preserved.

Recorded presentations that are especially effective can be filed for reuse later in the year or in other classes.

Desired change in students' speaking habits, as well as in organization of thinking, can best be effected by students listening to themselves. "Is that me?" is the usual response, followed by a grimace and smile. "Boy, do I stink!" is frequently the next statement, which allows discussion, based on immediate self-motivation, of ways to improve.

English, speech, drama, or music teachers who are working in a concentrated way on speech or vocal quality will find tape recordings invaluable for accumulating evidence of improvement throughout the year.

In all classes, teachers may find ways of having students demonstrate learning by recording their responses or by showing mastery of pronunciations, reading, or musical skills, or in answering individualized questions intended to allow them to show their ability to think and respond on their feet.

The tremendous audience of radio despite the competition of television indicates the power it possesses. Until motion pictures and television sets become much less expensive, radio, tape recordings, and records will be the more practical media for many instructional purposes.

In the use of audio resources, attention is engaged longer and the effect strengthened if the listening material has an easily recognizable structure. The outlines of what the student is to understand or appreciate should be joined in a coherent organization. He should be told early and explicitly just what the point of the program is and should be reminded as the program develops. He should be assisted by summation as the program ends. In dramatization, for example, the number of scenes and characters in each program should be sharply limited unless the group has had a great deal of training in listening. Each scene and each character should be carefully introduced because, if the student fails to make the essential identifications, his interest plummets. Sudden shifts in time and place should be held to a minimum for similar reasons. And, at the end, brief comments or suggestive questions by the announcer concerning what happened in the drama make learning more efficient.

When the class is expected to retain much detail, that program or recording should be chosen which provides repetition of detail in a variety of ways. For example, if the radio program hopes to establish several qualities in the character of President Wilson, each of these qualities may have to be given in two or three revealing episodes.

The last criterion will be obvious as soon as it is mentioned, yet it is crucial to the success of these media. The narrators, speakers, or participants in drama must employ good diction and clear enunciation. The presentation is to the ear alone, and if the ear cannot clearly distinguish the words, no learning can take place.

Choosing Film Strips, Slides, and Transparencies

Film strips, slides, and transparencies for overhead projectors are similar to radio programs and recordings in that they appeal to one sense only, but they are different in that they permit study and discussion at any point and for as long as the class wishes. Therefore, film strips, slides, and transparencies should be chosen for their adequacy in stimulating study and discussion.

To accomplish this kind of stimulation, the amount of detail and the number of captions or labels in any one of these illustrations should be limited. For example, so many parts of a flower may be labeled that the student either becomes confused or never focuses his attention at all. The appeal of a series of slides or pictures in a film strip can be strengthened by close-up, medium, and long photographic shots. The possibilities of diagrams, cut-aways, exploded views, graphs, and cartoons should not be overlooked.

Whenever possible, the use of mechanical equipment for all classroom resources should be entrusted to students. Responsibility, pride, and greater interest in the learning activities themselves will be the result.

Selecting Newspapers and Periodicals

Two kinds of newspapers and periodicals are available for classroom use: those especially prepared for instructional purposes and those published for the general adult market.

Probably the most important consideration with respect to the newspaper or periodical designed for classroom use is the quality of its interpretation and its selection of news stories, articles, and library materials. These newspapers and periodicals do not pretend to be abreast of each day's events. When they reach the classroom, the news is somewhat dated. Students will be familiar with a good many of the facts from reading adult newspapers, listening to the radio, viewing television, and hearing the conversation of their parents and others. A simple record of the news, then, is not enough. Students need interpretive comment to stimulate thinking about the significance of the facts; the quality of this comment should be the first criterion of selection. Naturally, it is important that the interpretive comment be nonpartisan and that opposing points of view be fairly stated.

Next in importance is the vocabulary of the material. A number of guides to readability, prepared by reading experts, are available. A teacher will do well to make use of these in order to avoid an unrealistic vocabulary burden.

Some attention should also be given to the makeup of a classroom newspaper or periodical designed for classroom use. It ought to invite attention through good design, avoiding the arrangement of articles like tombstones in a solemn row. Pictures, cartoons, maps, and graphs should be liberally used.

Finally, classroom newspapers and periodicals can be chosen for the quality of the teaching guide offered. This supplemental sheet, published for the teacher, should emphasize how he can guide his students to read with increasing discrimination in the particular subject area.

When one comes to select adult newspapers and periodicals for the classroom, the problem is much more difficult. First, because the number of publications available is overwhelming and, second, because they manage to violate most of the precepts just listed as guides to the selection of materials published especially for classroom use. Adult newspapers and periodicals are rarely nonpartisan; their vocabulary is not geared to the classroom; their makeup ranges from the sensational to the ultraconservative.

Still, these are the materials on which students will depend to an important extent when they are adults. It would be foolish to exclude these resources from the classroom since they offer an excellent opportunity for critical examination and for development of more mature tastes. What is important is to offer a comprehensive sampling from these materials. In many communities, only one newspaper is published. Students should become acquainted with other newspapers, differing in quality and temperament, in order to be able to view their own community newspaper in proper perspective. In many homes, the only periodicals read are chosen from the five or six national leaders in circulation; in still other

homes, no periodicals of any kind are read. Students therefore must be given the opportunity to examine and compare, in the objective atmosphere of the classroom, not only the popular favorites but also some of the lesser known magazines.

It is probable that racial tension will not decrease for some years to come unless educators are sensitive and adroit in helping students understand the complex issues involved. Most students, both black and white, are unaware of the Negro press. Most large cities have a weekly or twice-weekly newspaper particularly aimed at the Negro population. These should be available in the city schools for classroom study, and in suburban and rural communities also. In areas not served by such metropolitan papers, deliberate efforts should be made to select several of the best and include them as routinely as one uses the local newspaper, or the *New York Times*, the *Washington Post*, or the *Christian Science Monitor*.

In the magazine field, *Ebony* should be as common a source of pictures, articles, and other resource material as is *Life* or *Look*. *The Negro Digest* can supplement the *Reader's Digest*.

Many metropolitan centers also have other papers addressed to particular ethnic or special interest groups: *Variety*, for the stage-struck; *Women's Wear Daily* for the fashion minded; the *Wall Street Journal* for the economics student and future businessman. Labor unions have both local and national newspapers and journals. There are Spanish-language newspapers and magazines in many areas with large numbers of Spanish-speaking people.

Selecting Free Materials

Many millions of dollars are spent by commercial firms and public and private agencies on materials to influence public opinion. A large portion of these materials is aimed at the classroom. But whether or not especially tailored for the schools, the materials may constitute a valuable resource.¹⁰ Certainly they should not be used without carefully educating students to discern bias and slanting of information. Directed experience in the classroom can help adolescents to develop discrimination that will be valuable all their lives. As in the case of adult newspapers and periodicals, students will be assailed by special-interest materials all their lives. In choosing free materials for classroom use teachers should consider such questions as these:

Is the material genuinely related to curricular objectives?

Is it in good taste?

Is it an advertising piece, or does it keep advertising to an absolute minimum?

Making Your Own Materials

As sophisticated machinery allows the making of transparencies for overhead projectors, film-making, photocopying of materials, and the reproduction of

¹⁰ Franklin K. Patterson, "Free Teaching Aids in California Schools," *California Journal of Educational Research*, 1, September-November, 1950, 165-168 and 210-214.

pictorial—as well as printed—copy to become cheaper and thus more accessible to classroom teachers, it will become necessary for teachers to understand the potential of such material for the classroom and also necessary to know how to develop these materials.

Increasing numbers of school libraries (or learning centers, as they are coming to be called) are securing such equipment. Almost all school systems now have available a materials or resource center where this machinery is available for teacher use. Even if the librarian or some other staff member is not trained in how to develop these materials, manufacturers' representatives are often available and eager to visit schools and conduct training sessions for staff members.

Teachers must be cautioned about the possibility of infringing on copyright laws. Frequently material that teachers wish to duplicate is readily available in some form from publishers or permission to reproduce is readily given. Some manufacturers of copying machines publish weekly periodicals containing materials in many subject areas. These periodicals are especially prepared to ensure clear printing and are designed to enhance classroom use.

Programmed Learning: Promise or Failure?

The promise or failure of programmed learning rests not in the approach itself, but in whether teachers use it at all and in whether—once it is used—it is used well. As an aid in the art of teaching, programmed instruction possesses undeniable advantages for both teacher and students. Learning how to implement those advantages is a significant challenge to the teacher who expects to be “with it” in the last decades of this century. Like it or not, programmed instruction is here to stay.

Evidence indicates that “automation is of some importance in the attitudes of teachers toward educational media” and “that teachers are capable of making their feelings into self-fulfilling prophecies. Teachers who dislike certain kinds of materials are likely to affect the achievement of their pupils by the use of such materials in a negative way, thus ending up with ‘evidence’ to support their previously held biases.”¹¹

What teachers need to recognize is that no teaching machine can ever replace the kind of learning which is provided by what Erich Fromm calls “the presence of a mature and loving person.” What teaching machines, and related devices, can do is free the teacher from the withering routines of the classroom and allow him to devote all his energies to the creative and inspirational tasks of education.

Two Basic Types of Programmed Material

Whether offered through a teaching machine (also called a self-instructional device), horizontal or scrambled textbooks, or other means, basically there are two approaches to programmed instruction. The first, and most popular, is the

¹¹ Sigmund Tobias, “Dimensions of Teachers' Attitudes toward Instructional Media,” *American Educational Research Journal*, 5, January 1968, No. 1, 91-98.

constructed-response approach, developed by B. F. Skinner and his colleagues. The second is the multiple-choice approach, which is the work of Norman A. Crowder and associates.

The constructed-response program breaks the learning process into small steps in order to minimize student errors. The steps make up a linear program of overlapping frames in each of which the student must write out his answer. Immediately, the student is rewarded for his answer or shown what the correct answer is.

-
1. Teaching is the arranging of conditions that enable a student to learn. *Programmed instruction* is a new technique of arranging the conditions of learning, so p_____d instruction is a teaching technique.
-
1. programmed 2. Instructional techniques, whether lectures or discussions or audiovisual aids, can be used by teachers to implement differing educational philosophies. Teachers can use the new technique of programmed i_____ to further their goals.
-
2. instruction 3. Programmed instruction is a new technique of _____ing students what we want them to know.
-
3. teaching 4. Do educators agree on what students should know?
-
4. No—there are many different goals. 5. If a teacher can say exactly what his students should learn, and if there is a program available that teaches this, then this teacher can use p_____ i_____ to further his teaching goals.¹²
-

The multiple-choice approach attempts to inculcate information in larger segments than the constructed-response approach. It presents material in units as large as, or larger than, paragraphs, each of which thoroughly explains a principle in its entirety. Through presentation of a rule, for example, and succeeding questions based on the rule, the student selects an answer from among multiple choices. Through a technique called "branching," the student is then exposed to a review of material that is expected to aid him in mastering the material. Two types of branching are employed: backward branching and forward branching. When a student selects an incorrect response he is referred to a backward-branching sequence that provides him with remedial instruction until he is able to respond correctly to the problem. When a student selects the correct responses he jumps ahead to a new material.

¹² Susan Meyer Mittle, Lewis D. Eigen, and P. Kenneth Komoski, *A Programmed Primer on Programming Vol. 1* New York: The Center for Programmed Instruction, Inc., 1961, p. 1.

K T R A Q G M O S W B

—————→ East

Now, we are ready to do some problems in which we use real numbers to measure trips made in one of two opposite directions. Suppose that the trips are made along the road pictured above. The two opposite directions are east and west. Let us agree to use real numbers like 6 and 3 to measure trips made in the easterly direction. So, for example, 2 measures a 2-miles-to-the-east trip, say, a trip from T to A. Then, 2 measures a 2-miles-to-the-west trip, say, a trip from B to S.

What real number measures the trip from A to M?

If you think the answer is:	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \rightarrow \\ 4 \\ \rightarrow \\ 3 \\ \leftarrow \\ 3 \end{array} \right.$	Turn to Page 23.
		Turn to Page 22.
		Turn to Page 21.

Paul I. Jacobs, Milton H. Maier, and Lawrence M. Stolurow, *A Guide to Evaluating Self-Instructional Programs*. New York. Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1966, p. 4.

Both types of instructional approach obviously lend themselves to the mastery of fundamental concepts and to developmental and drill work. Programmed materials so far have been found to be helpful in introducing, and developing, skills in such areas as grammar, arithmetical and mathematical fundamentals. Since speech patterns, spelling and remedial reading, and scientific fundamentals. Since such content can be effectively performed on a one-to-one basis—much in the way in which a tutor works—it lends itself well to teaching machines and programmed textbooks that allow students to work individually, and thus at their own levels and own paces. Programmed materials work especially well with remedial, or disadvantaged, students whose intellectual ability or experience level is such that a great deal of reinforcement is necessary in learning and for whom the repetitious nature of the materials is often more advantageous.

RECOMMENDED READING

- Arnold, James W. *Religious Textbooks . . . Primers in Bigotry*. Notre Dame, Ind.: The American Jewish Committee and Dominican College, 1964. A study reporting the out-of-school learning students may acquire in "Sunday School."
- AV Communication Review. Published by the Department of Audiovisual Instruction, National Education Association, Washington, D.C.
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- Billington, Ray Allen, and others. *The Historians' Contribution to Anglo-American Misunderstanding*. (Reprint of a Committee on National Bias in Anglo-American History Textbooks). New York: Hobbs, Dorman, and Company, Inc., 1966. Do you realize that the British were justified in burning the nation's capital in 1812? A study of the miseducation conveyed by textbooks.
- Brown, James W., Richard Lewis, and Fred Harclerod. *A-V Instruction: Materials and Methods*. New York: McGraw-Hill, Inc., 1959. A practical guide with sections on "Selecting and Using Ready-Made Materials" and "Free and Inexpensive Materials," plus printed text and reference materials, films, radio, recordings, television, programmed instruction. Also presents methods of teacher-student creative efforts in instructional materials. Special sections include audiovisual equipment and duplicating processes as well as "how-to," detailed, simple illustrations. Also contains special reference section, a subject field reference guide.
- "Bulletin Boards and Display," two filmstrips subtitled "Planning the Bulletin Board" and "Bulletin Board in Action." Bailey Films, Inc., 1966. Reino Randall, producer. Address: Bailey Films, Inc., 6509 DeLongpre Avenue, Hollywood, Calif. 90028. Excellent principles of design for maximum effectiveness of bulletin boards. Helpful sections include illustrations of related color and shape concepts.
- Culkin, John M., S.J., "I Was a Teen-Age Movie Teacher," *Saturday Review*, July 16, 1966, pp. 51-53+. Explanation of, and appeal for, film study in the secondary school. Provocative and interesting.
- deGrazia, Alfred, and David Sohn (eds.). *Programs, Teachers, and Machines*. New York: Bantam Books, 1964. Extensive list of articles by theorists, psychologists, educators, programmers, and research specialists discussing all areas of programmed instruction.
- Design for ETV: Planning for Schools with Television*. New York: Educational Facilities Laboratories, 1960. See especially the section "Design for Group Spaces."
- Edling, Jack V., and others. *Four Case Studies of Programmed Instruction*. New York: The Fund for the Advancement of Education, 1964. Report of an investigation of four widely different uses of programmed instruction in schools. Optimistic conclusions with recommendations.
- Educational/Instructional Broadcasting: The International Journal of Educational Radio and Television*. Published bimonthly by Acolyte Publications, Inc., 647 North Sepulveda Boulevard, Los Angeles, Calif.
- Educator's Guide to Media and Methods*. Published by Media and Methods Institute, Inc., 134 North 13 Street, Philadelphia, Pa. An unusual and sophisticated journal that will appeal especially to creative and innovative teachers seeking sound ways of utilizing the new media.
- Finkelstein, Barbara, Loretta Golden, and Jean D. Grambs. "A Bibliography of Research and Commentary on Textbooks and Related Works," *Social Education*, 33, March 1969, 331-336. A comprehensive bibliography of textbook content studies. A good starting point for an independent study project in any subject field.
- Finn, James D., and Donald G. Perrin. *Teaching Machines and Programmed Learning. A survey of the industry*. Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1962. Report prepared for the Technological Development Project of
- Folk Music. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1964. A catalog of folk songs, ballads, dances, instrumental pieces, and folk tales of the United States and Latin America on phonograph records.

- Gordon, Arthur. "Throw Out the Textbooks," *American Education*. Washington, D.C.: Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Office of Education, 3, September 1967, No. 8, 5-7.
- Grambs, Jean Dresden. *Intergroup Education: Methods and Materials*. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1968, Part II "Films." Provides a discussion of the use of open-ended films and a recommended list.
- Guidelines for Textbook Selection*. Report of the Joint Committee of the National Education Association and the American Textbook Publishers Institute. Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1963. A discussion of guidelines for developing evaluation and selection procedures of textbooks.
- Hall, Edward T. *The Silent Language*. New York: Doubleday & Company, Inc., 1959. Fascinating study of man's ways of communicating without language. Implications of such chapters as "Time Talks: American Accents," "Space Speaks," and "Loosening the Grip" have special implications for the classroom teacher.
- Horkheimer, Mary Foley (ed.). *Educators' Guide to Free Films*. Randolph, Wisc.: Educators' Progress Service, annual editions.
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- Jacobs, Paul I., Milton Maier, and Lawrence Stalurow. *A Guide to Evaluating Self-Instructional Programs*. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1966. Practical guide that asks a series of questions and provides a checklist designed to help evaluate programmed instruction.
- Jewett, Arno. "A Critical Review of High School English Textbooks," *The Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals*, 48, February 1964, 129-134.
- Koskey, Thomas. *Baited Bulletin Boards*. Palo Alto: Fearon Publishers, 1954.
- LaNoue, George R. "The National Defense Education Act and 'Secular' Subjects," *Phi Delta Kappan*, 43, June 1962, 380-388. Using science and mathematics examples, the author shows that materials written for parochial schools may have a covert religious message. A controversial article.
- Levison, Melvin E. "A Path to Audiovisual Literacy," *The Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals*, 51, December 1967, No. 323, 80-92. Presents method of learning to analyze, appreciate, and evaluate films. Helpful to several subject areas, but examples here are history-based.
- Lockridge, J. Preston. *Educational Displays and Exhibits*. Austin, Tex.: University of Texas Visual Instructional Bureau, 1966.
- Lynch, James J., and Bertrand Evans. *High School English Textbooks*. Boston: Little, Brown & Co., 1963.
- Mallery, David. *The School and the Art of Motion Pictures* (rev. ed.). Boston: National Association of Independent Schools, 1966. A discussion of practices and possibilities with an annotated list of new and old films of special interest to schools and available either for theater showing or for 16-millimeter rental. Extremely helpful.
- Marcus, Lloyd. *The Treatment of Minorities in Secondary School Textbooks*. New York: Anti-Defamation League of B'nai Brith, 1961.
- National Education Association of the United States and the American Association of School Administrators, Educational Policies Commission. *Mass Communication and Education*. Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1958.

- Good overview of growth of mass communication, its effect on society, and its implications for schools: students, teachers, administrators.
- National Information Center for Educational Media. *Index to 16mm. Educational Films*. New York: McGraw-Hill, Inc., 1967.
- Nelson, Jack, and Gene Roberts Jr. *The Censors and the Schools*. Boston: Little, Brown & Company, 1963. A detailed discussion of censorship of textbooks in the United States, presenting attacks brought against textbook material by organized pressure groups.
- Nelson, Leslie W. *Instructional Aids: How To Make and Use Them*. Dubuque, Iowa: William C. Brown Company, Publishers, 1958. Drawings and photographs illustrate methods of making and using a variety of instructional aids ranging across the curriculum. Especially helpful for use with slower students or with "project" assignments in seventh or eighth grades.
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- Nietz, John A. *The Evaluation of American Secondary School Textbooks*. Rutland, Vermont: Charles E. Tuttle Co., Inc., 1966.
- Oettinger, Anthony. "The Myths of Educational Technology," *Saturday Review*, May 18, 1969, pp. 76-77+. Straightforward warning that educational technology will not make "really significant progress in the next decade." Readable.
- Oettinger, Anthony G., and Sema Marks. *Run, Computer, Run*. Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1969. Subtitled "The Mythology of Educational Innovation" this thoughtful work considers the use and misuse of educational technology. Not intended to disparage technological innovation, but to "rescue it from unmerited disillusionment."
- Phil Delta Kappan, 49, April 1969, No. 8. Section of five articles devoted to "computer assisted instruction."
- Pipe, Peter. *Practical Programming*. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1966. Basic handbook that discusses characteristics, history, and types of programming. Also discusses preparations for and writing of a program.
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The Teacher on Roller-Skates *management in and out of the classroom*

7

Once a teacher begins to employ a wide selection of resources and to involve students actively, the skills of organizing and administering the classroom become essential. Beginning teachers are typically astonished, overwhelmed, frustrated, and even angered by the amount and kind of organizational tasks demanded in so complex an institution as the modern secondary school. Since the tasks are undeniably there—and are likely to remain—early mastery of them will ensure happier teachers and students.

Classroom management is closely related to success in discipline and to a democratic atmosphere. The condition of the classroom and how things are organized determines much of how students will perform there. (You may wish to read this chapter in relation to Chapters 3, 15, and 16.)

Facing the Facts

It is to be expected that the new teacher will feel somewhat ill at ease in a room full of adolescents just because he is new and just because they are adolescents. It is even more understandable that he should be uncertain when he contemplates classroom procedures that permit these unknown quantities to move freely around the room. How can he be sure that they won't start a scuffle, friendly or otherwise, en route to the dictionary? How does he know that they will work diligently on a problem in a group and not spend the time

flirting and gossiping? Well, he doesn't know unless he tries! And that prospect may seem frightening indeed.

There is this reassurance, however: one need not take on all management burdens at once. No one attempts figure eights on ice skates until he is sure that he can keep his ankles straight. So it is in teaching. Before the teacher tries classroom methods that involve extensive management problems, he must develop a feeling of fairly firm mastery of the ordinary classroom routines. Mastery can be attained only by moving gradually from simpler toward more complex ways of working.

If the teacher can manage to get the roll taken efficiently and effectively at the beginning of the hour, if he can return test papers with little confusion, if he can distribute and collect equipment and supplies in a speedy and orderly way, if he can stop whatever he is doing for an interruption from the principal's office and not have his class dissolve into complete chaos, then he has mastered the essentials of good management. And he is ready for more variety in classroom routines. At this stage the teacher may introduce a motion picture, have a resource visitor, plan a short-run group experience, send part of the class to the library, plan a field trip, and even discuss problems of discipline and control with the class.

It is important to underline this thesis: *ability to manage grows gradually*. The beginning teacher may be somewhat skeptical. If it is so easy to move from traditional to modern methods, he may ask, "Why don't we see more of the latter used in the classrooms we visit?" Some teachers adhere to the more conventional methods because they have not achieved a basic sense of security in classroom management; they are still afraid that there will be complete loss of control if they once shift the focus from the teacher to the learning problem. Some teachers remain unconvinced that the newer methods achieve true learning goals. Some are familiar only with older methods of instruction. Some school administrators do not encourage departures from familiar patterns. Some janitors, even, are annoyed when desks and chairs are rearranged. Again, a teacher may have had several unfortunate experiences and may refuse to try again. And, unfortunately, other teachers are unimaginative, tired, or lazy.

Before They Get There: The Classroom

Students largely respond to teachers, to one another, and to their studies according to the comfort they feel in their surroundings. The classroom that says "Welcome" throughout the school year is the classroom to which students come with high expectations and in which they perform at their highest level.

As young people enter a classroom, they sense almost immediately the kind of spirit that prevails. The following student comment is typical of how youth react to the classroom environment a teacher sets up:

I like to go to Mr. Codirezzi's class. Partly because he's a good teacher, but also because his classroom is a nice place to be. In fact, it's the best classroom

I've ever been in. The bulletin boards are terrific. They're really interesting and they look good, too. Mr. Codirenzi always has magazines and newspapers in the back of the room and he has some plants along the side of the room. He always puts our projects and other assignments where we can see what others have done. There are so many interesting books and other stuff that he's always bringing to school that you'll always find kids poking around in his room before and after school. Maybe the best thing though is that the desks and chairs aren't like they are in all my other classes—you know all in rows, facing the teacher's desk in front. Mr. Codirenzi's desk is in the back corner and our desks are arranged in groups, or sometimes in a horseshoe or a circle. It's really a funny thing, but I'm positive everybody feels more comfortable.

It is a great help, of course, if the teacher is assigned to the same room for all his classes. As schools become more and more crowded and schedules are tightened, however, it is not always possible for each teacher to have his own room. Sometimes a teacher may have most of his classes in one room, then "float" for several periods, and have to share his own room during his free period. This certainly narrows interest in and opportunity for room arrangement. To intensify the problem, the students also feel displaced. In addition, interpersonal problems among a faculty may be aggravated because of having to share rooms: one teacher is compulsive about neatness and order, whereas another has a mighty disregard for such mundane matters. A compromise must be reached, and it must be one that puts the welfare of the students first. An understanding about procedures for making the room attractive, about storage and display facilities for each class, about the shelf space for reference material, should be sought among teachers who share rooms.

Whether it is the individual's fault or not, a disorderly environment breeds disorderly conduct. Even if it means doing more than his share, the concerned teacher will help deter antisocial and destructive behavior by his example.

A consultant to a junior high school was walking down the hall with one of the central office staff. Suddenly the visiting dignitary stooped and pushed back a piece of metal that protruded below a locker. As they went down the stairs he poked with his shoe at a big hole in the linoleum. A broken window with tape ineffectually keeping the sagging ends together next caught his eye. The door to the classrooms swung on broken hinges.

After a pregnant silence he finally voiced his feelings: "I seem to remember that Redl,¹ in his research with delinquent youngsters, made a point about disturbance contagion. He said that not only did the excitement generated by a child serve as a point of infection for other susceptible children, but chaotic environments were also sources of infection and produced chaotic behavior in youngsters. How can we expect young adolescents to be disciplined and

¹ Fritz Redl, *Children Who Hate*. New York: The Free Press, 1951.

self-respecting when we put them in environments which are disturbing and dislocating?"

An administrator of long experience has observed:

Across the years, I have been interested to observe that the classrooms in this building that are least damaged by student abuse—desk carvings, graffiti, damaged equipment, mutilated text and reference books—are those belonging to teachers who see to it that their rooms are friendly and interesting places to work. When a student is interested in where he is and in what he's doing, he doesn't have time to build up frustrations that release themselves in destruction.

It is dangerous to be complacent about "mere classrooms"; they are an intimate part of the total learning environment.

Order in the Classroom

It may seem obvious to say that the prime rule guiding the teacher in the organization of his classroom is "a place for everything and everything in its place." It is disastrous when the chemistry teacher plans a certain experiment but can't find the necessary chemicals. Or when the distributive education teacher plans a lesson around an advertising mock-up but can't locate it. Or when the physical education teacher promises a demonstration in archery but cannot find the arrows he knows are somewhere in the storage closet. These frustrations are the result of poor management and poor housekeeping. And they can add up to extremely poor teaching.

Somehow, obvious as this may seem, there are many classrooms in which the needed items are simply not available. Are they lost, strayed, or stolen? No one knows. It is a useful habit to make a daily check before school opens to be sure that the room and its materials are neat and in order, ready for another day's work.

There are several places that seem to collect clutter by a kind of perverse private magnetism. One is the teacher's desk. Another is the top of the file. Still another is the bookcase. A teacher has to be particularly careful to keep his desk neat: not a model of rigid order, with never a paper a hair's breadth out of alignment, but a place where he can quickly and easily find the class rollbook, the book or model he needs, an extra sharpened pencil, a piece of scratch paper. A teacher's desk is a revealing item; a messy desk is almost always an indicator of a messy teacher. Students become uneasy when a desk is piled high with carelessly strewn papers. "Why hand in careful work here?" they say to themselves; "this teacher obviously doesn't treat it with care."

Instructional Routines: Seating, Attendance, Records

Even for experienced teachers, the first days with a new class can be hectic. Students and teacher both have a host of adjustments to make. In a

sense, a new social organization is being born, and it is inevitably attended by some pain. For these days, well-planned routine is imperative, since impressions are being formed and exchanged by the students which may help or hinder the teaching process for long afterward. It helps to be at, or near, the door of the classroom when students enter and to make a deliberate effort to speak to them by name. This recognition of individuality helps establish a rapport that has many subtle effects in teacher-student relationships. Discovering activities in which students are engaged may suggest impromptu remarks to be made to them. Of course, these casual conversations need not be limited to the classroom; whenever and wherever one sees students, they should be recognized and something said to give them assurance that the teacher knows each one personally.

In almost every secondary-school classroom in the country, at the opening of each hour, there is one prime order of business: taking roll. But how can one plan to organize students for efficient management?

There are several possibilities, and each has its consequences:

SEATING PLAN

Seat all students alphabetically.

CONSEQUENCES

This plan helps in learning students' names. It is fair; no one need complain. It is likely to separate cliques and best friends. Of course, students whose names are at the end of the alphabet always sit in the rear (or front). (This plan may be utilized only long enough for the teacher to recognize students.)

Let students sit where they wish.

With this procedure one can quickly see the social organization of the classroom. Cliques and groups emerge; isolates can be spotted; friends like to be close together. But most students will not sit in front seats. Trouble-makers often sit near each other and in the rear. And the students will not extend their friendship range.

Seat students according to size or special problem, such as vision or hearing defects.

Smaller students sit in front so that they can see, as do students with glasses or a hearing deficiency. But seating all the big boys in the rear may spell trouble.

Unless there is good reason to the contrary a teacher might begin with the free choice system. True, he should take into account the particular physical

needs of youngsters as soon as they become apparent. But for the first few days, he may find it advantageous to allow youngsters to sit where they please. What about the noisy cliques? This is something the teacher has to know about as soon as possible. Once identified, he has learned something valuable about the social structure of the class. He will be apprised at once of the hazards of developing self-discipline within the group.

The other great advantage of the free-choice system is, of course, that students, like other human beings, prefer to be next to people they know and like. Even if they do not talk to their neighbors, it is simply easier to get work done if the people around them are those they like and know. For this very human, very understandable, reason then, adolescents may react more positively to free choice than to any imposed seating arrangement.

During the first days of the school year the teacher's major task is learning students' names. If it is established that students may sit where they please, then the teacher will want to request that these seats be retained during the early weeks of the class. A seating chart is a must at this time. A quick way of obtaining this is to make a plan of the room, showing the desks, and have each student write his name in the appropriate square.

The importance of knowing and correctly pronouncing names cannot be overstated. Humans make such identification with their names that in a sense names are the persons. In certain nonliterate cultures, "real" names are so important that they are often kept secret lest evil spirits cast a spell upon the person. In some societies an individual does not get a "real" name until puberty, when he is recognized as a "real" person. While Americans do not apply this same kind of mystique to their names, they do regard the sight and sound of them as unique. Many teachers find it hard to learn the names of 165 students in one day or even in one week or one month. But this is one task to which they should immediately devote their full energy. The sooner they know all the names of all their students, the sooner routines and teaching tasks will become a matter of working with individuals rather than with bodies.

Taking roll and seating students, then, have ramifications beyond mere management. After a seating chart is made it should be used! Students do not mind if teachers refer to the seating chart when calling them. Whether to call students "Miss Jones" or "Mr. Smith," or to use first names, is largely determined by local custom and school level. Sometimes the practice differs from class to class; whatever the practice, teachers should avoid calling students by last names only. Many adolescents will find it either clinical or rude. If you have freedom to do as you wish, be careful about first names. Do not use them until you find the form preferred. Horace may prefer Butch, and Antoinette may wish to be called "Tony."

Keeping Careful Records

Armed with the knowledge of the power of names, who is to keep track of the names listed on the roll, and how? During the first days of school,

teachers will want to take the roll themselves. This is an invaluable aid in learning the names of students quickly. The importance of taking roll is clearly appreciated by all experienced teachers; beginning teachers may not know how crucial this procedure can be. The daily attendance roster is, in most states, the basis on which funds are allocated to school districts. It is vital to know who is in school, and for how long. Unless a careful and complete roll is taken, school authorities cannot know who is truant or put the proper machinery in motion to find out why the student is not in school. There are few things more disturbing to an administrator than a teacher who does not complete his attendance check accurately and promptly.

What kind of attendance procedures work best? The seating chart, as we have indicated, is a great help during the early days of the semester. An empty seat indicates an absent member. The question arises, however, "How long do students have to stay in the seats they chose at the beginning of the semester?"

As soon as he learns to manage any degree of flexibility in class arrangements, the teacher may permit, and encourage, the shifting of seats. This renders the initial seating chart obsolete, of course. Reading a roll aloud is time-consuming. Unless each voice that says "Present" is checked, some wise adolescent may answer for his or her friend. It has been suggested that students sign a roster; the same possibility is present, however: someone may sign for someone else. So these methods may not work very well.

The use of student assistants is an effective way of taking roll. To assure accuracy, two students may be assigned this task. By rotating the job arbitrarily through the class, the issue of favoritism is eliminated. Students may also enter into the teacher's rollbook a check to indicate who is absent on a given day.

In many schools the teacher is issued an "official" rollbook. Here he enters the names of all students, usually alphabetically, with a page for each class. If student assistants take the roll and enter attendance reports, the teacher will want to have two rollbooks: one for attendance and one for grades and other data. It is not wise to give students ready access to personal material about other students.

The rollbook in which students' grades are recorded is an important document. Here is the record of returned assignments, test grades, final examination grades—many of the items on which a final grade is to be based. A neat rollbook not only is a great help to a teacher in his own duties; it has other functions as well. A parent may come to school to protest a grade his offspring has received, and the rollbook may have to be produced as evidence for what was used to determine the grade. A messy, smudged rollbook, with hit-or-miss entries, will not help a teacher defend the validity of the grade assigned. This record has some of the attributes of a public record. The grade given cannot—and will not—be changed by anyone unless it can be proved that evidence was deliberately distorted. Part of a teacher's management routine, then, is learning to keep a rollbook and entering in it the data needed to make an evaluation of students. It is wise to keep old rollbooks for several years if the administration does not automatically file them at the end of the school year. Requests for recommen-

dations are sometimes more quickly and efficiently handled by referring to them.

It is always possible that some curious adolescent will find a grade book when the teacher is not present. If standardized test scores are entered, they should be placed in the record in code. Devise a letter code, for example, whereby high scores are designated by an X and low scores by an M.

One great need in secondary education is to know more about the numerous students encountered daily. Some personal data can be gathered about each student through a questionnaire. In addition, cumulative records in the main office or the counselor's office report the results of standardized tests taken by students. These provide information that should be valued. Learning their value is the problem. It is suggested that after the students in a class have become individuals in their own right in the view of their "new" teacher, the teacher can obtain their test scores and transfer them to the rollbook. Obtaining such scores too early may cause prejudging, and as the chapters on appraisal and grading point out (chapters 13 and 14), such records are full of human error and bias. So give each of your classes a "blank slate." It is often surprising that—unaware of Bill's reputation for stupidity—an innocent teacher, who treats him as though he were intelligent, actually produces a metamorphosis of "stupid Bill" into "smart Bill." The "self-fulfilling prophecy" or Pygmalion effect must never be under-rated.²

The class is seated, the teacher knows his students' names and he has taken roll. What other management problems will he face?

Classroom Logistics

During a war the commanding officer must make sure that the troops have the supplies they need when they need them. The classroom requires just as careful a tending to the problem of logistics.

Each subject area has its own supply problems, and each school has established procedures by which these supplies are obtained. In some schools there may be a supply clerk who issues material when requisitioned. Sometimes the amount of a given item is limited by a departmental budget, and all requisitions must be approved by the department head or area supervisor or building principal. Sometimes, in smaller schools, the supplies are open to any teacher to take. Certain supplies—for subjects such as science, art, home economics, and industrial arts—may be expensive and take a long time to replenish once they are depleted.

At the opening of the school year the teacher will want to check on the supplies available. An inventory may, or may not, be on hand. A personal check is essential. Is the chemistry supply room adequate for the experiments anticipated? Are the microscopes in working order? What about the typewriters, the sewing machines, the welding equipment? Not only will the teacher want

² Robert Rosenthal and Lenore Jacobson, *Pygmalion in the Classroom*. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1968.

to check supplies on hand and the source and possibilities for new ones, but he also will want to investigate the whole area of repair and maintenance. What if a sewing machine breaks? Who repairs it? Where does he do it? And at what cost? The supply of textbooks and the replacement of worn books is another concern of most teachers. But the rules vary with each school district.

Among the audiovisual materials, motion pictures most often present requisitioning problems. Usually the films must be ordered long in advance of the date on which they will be used. Teachers who plan instruction with their students will have difficulty predicting just when a motion picture may be needed; compromises will be inevitable. But better compromises can be effected if it is known at the beginning of the school year just how, and when, films may be requested. Larger secondary schools may have an audiovisual coordinator to assist with the scheduling. Even if they do, however, the coordinator will appreciate the teacher's familiarity with the catalog of the principal supply sources for the school, the necessary requisition forms, and the other required administrative procedures.

Many audiovisual materials require equipment: projectors, recorders, screens. Most, if not all, equipment will also require advance scheduling. A quick way for the new teacher to become unpopular is to remember just before class time that he must have a piece of equipment. Although many schools have student service clubs that distribute and operate the equipment, it is advantageous for the teacher himself to know how the equipment is operated.

The Classroom in Action

Let us assume that it is 8:15 on a Monday morning. Mrs. Collier has planned to give a test during second period, review the text material during the third period, and work on group projects during the fourth. What supplies will be needed for each activity? Extra papers for the test? Pencils or pens for the inevitable few who forget? A few extra texts for the same reason? Colored paper, crayons, tracing paper, magazines for the group projects?

The classes come in. It is at this point that a strong case can be made for student assistants. With a modicum of direction, a few students can pass out the paper, pencils, books, and other supplies while the teacher is discussing with the class the lesson that is to come. Too often a good half of the time of such laboratory classes as chemistry, biology, physics, art, and mechanical drawing is consumed in simply getting the material to the students at the beginning of the period and collecting it again at the end. Such a waste of time is difficult to defend: it cheats the students of vital instruction and it is an indication of poor management.

Teachers can help themselves in these matters. A storage cabinet, properly used, is a great aid. Here papers of various kinds can be kept, along with related material. Students, assisted by labels on shelves and drawers, can keep the supplies in order. The bookcase should shelve currently used references. A simple check-out system can be organized so that books are circulated as

needed. No file cabinets? No bookcases? Bricks and boards can serve as a temporary bookcase. A sturdy wooden box may be found that is the right size for storage. Crude as these may be, they hold supplies and are better than either a disorganized mess stacked in a corner or no supplies at all.

A useful activity for one of the first days is to distribute duplicated statements describing basic routines of the class (distributing and collecting materials, forms for reports, checking out reference books, and so on). The statements should be regarded as a basis for discussion. It should be understood that the routines may be modified as the class devises more efficient procedures. Sometimes a group can be immediately appointed to codify management patterns to be presented later to the class. *When students devise routines for the class, their peers are more likely to observe those routines.*

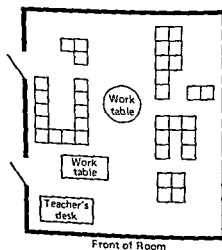
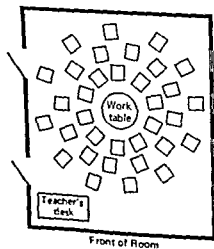
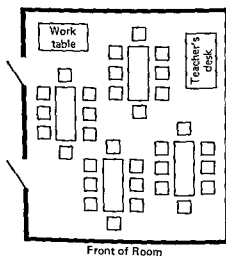
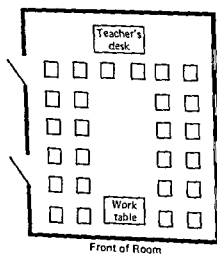
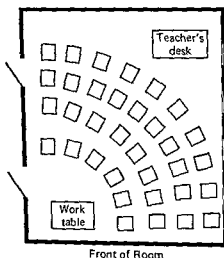
Wisely used, student assistants can relieve teachers of the supervision of much necessary routine. This use of students need not be exploitation. Many will gain status and develop maturity from the experience. Because it is an educative experience, student assistance should be rotated. It should not be the exclusive property of the academically gifted. Nor should it gain the reputation of being awarded to the teacher's favorites. Students themselves should have a voice in who does the jobs, what the responsibilities are, and how long they should be enjoyed.

Before the class hour ends, a few minutes spent in general housekeeping are well justified. The next class should come into a neat and orderly room. This is especially important when the room is shared by several teachers. The incoming teacher's morale will be helped by clean chalkboards, bookshelves in good order, chairs or desks in place, and a floor clear of papers. At the end of the day, the custodian will be appreciative. Furthermore, the beginning teacher will earn a reputation for being a good manager.

Room Arrangement

For the different activities during the class hour, some changes in seating arrangements will be necessary. Even if the seats cannot be moved, and it may come as a surprise to some that even at this writing there are schools—many in the "inner city"—where desks are still nailed to the floor, the students need not be immovable for the hour. *They can and should move—to facilitate discussion, group work, project and study activities.* Of course, it is even more important that the teacher not be fastened to the front of the room, for this encourages the old recite-for-the-teacher pattern. Where there is space, the teacher's desk is best moved to the rear of the room: supervision is more efficient from this vantage point, private conversations with students are facilitated, and teacher domination of the classroom is less likely. If the furniture is movable and the class is working as one group, seats may be arranged in quarter or half circles facing away from the windows from front to rear, so that no one has a direct light glare. In small-group activity, work around tables or at desks arranged in squares or circles is, of course, most efficient, because face-to-

SUGGESTED ROOM ARRANGEMENTS



face working fosters group unity. The diagrams on page 148 illustrate some possible room arrangements for whole class and group work.

Managing Time

The management of classroom routines is a task best learned early and mastered early. At the same time, the teacher must carefully consider his use of time. Regardless of the good qualities a teacher possesses, he can be successful only when he is reasonably fresh in mind and body. The teaching day rarely ends with the bell signaling the end of the last period. Students come for extra help, for advice, for disciplinary adjudication, or just for chit chat. Similarly, colleagues may come by to confer, gossip, or mutually commiserate. There are books to be replaced, supplies to be checked, and the next day's plans to be reviewed for last-minute changes. Finally, the teacher packs for home.

One student teacher learned about time-management the hard way:

I had worked arduously over the unit test. I had prepared 50 multiple-choice items, 10 matching, and 3 essay questions. My supervisor felt it was a good one for a first try. I was elated! Fortunately I bribed a girlfriend into typing the test on ditto masters and I ran them off and stapled them so that they could be administered on Tuesday, the day announced, to four classes. Well, it worked; in fact, it worked so well, that I worked until 2 A.M. three nights in a row correcting the tests.

I had promised the test back on Friday. I had forgotten—and no one had warned me—that four times 35 is 140, which meant I had 140 test papers to grade and 140 grades to record. I also found, to my horror, that the seventh-period class, which I had never considered a very alert group, had done remarkably well, even in the essay questions. It dawned on my feeble mind that maybe the seventh-period students were brighter than I thought: they had checked out the test questions with pals in earlier periods during the day.

The above anecdote has two obvious morals: (1) having all classes take a test on the same day has consequences for the teacher's time and energy; (2) students do communicate with each other. The latter problem can be solved by varying the timing, as well as the coverage, of the test. The first problem, that of too many papers to grade at one time, involves the teacher's awareness of the problems of managing his own time. As he looks ahead, he will need to identify holidays, special events, and his own schedule of obligations (anniversaries, birthdays, and other family expectations) and fit everything together.

Finally, the teacher is expected to participate in events the school schedules: PTA, Career Night, College Night, the Sweetheart Prom, the league play-off game. Last, but not least, are the extracurricular—or cocurricular—activities that are part of the school's program. How much time a teacher can, or will, give to these activities is important, and will be discussed—with related implications—in the following section.

Extracurricular Activities: Bane or Blessing?

Teachers are expected to sponsor some extracurricular activity in many schools. Hopefully, the activity to be sponsored is one the teacher genuinely likes himself; some administrators may arbitrarily assign a teacher, particularly a beginning teacher, as sponsor for the Hi-Y club, or the junior class, or to reactivate the stamp club. Some teachers resent this "extra" burden; others find it among the most rewarding aspects of their teaching, since the relationship with youth is less formal, more creative, and often more fun. The simple fact that no grades are given is apt to make the whole student-teacher situation a mutually enjoyable and rewarding one. But of course it is much more valuable for all if teachers, as well as students, are truly volunteering their time to the activity because they like stamps, or rock-polishing, or debate.

Extracurricular activities usually engage students in the most open competition of their school experiences. The value of competition as a motivating device to prompt scholastic learning and encourage social interaction is great. It is important that teachers bear in mind that invidious competition can destroy motivation, hinder personal growth, and diminish the reward of group participation if the competitive elements are overstressed.

The ancient Greeks placed much value on individual competition and deified it, with favorable results. Many twentieth-century schools have deified competition, too, but with results that are sometimes unfavorable. Where the Greeks were able to inspire kinship, admiration, personal initiative, and friendly contest, modern school competition can have the opposite effect. That is not to say that administrators or teachers set out to generate destructive competition; that is inconceivable. What does happen though, in too many instances, is that a school's name becomes a rallying point for competition that places learning not first but last. One student commented bitterly:

From the first day at Grant High, we were driven to prove to everybody else that we were best. The first announcement on the public address system was, "everybody knows about Grant's football team. And I'd just like to say it's not too early to get our spirit up and support the team." Cheerleaders, pom-pom girls, drama, the newspaper, soccer, tennis, golf, baseball, basketball all had to be tops. All we heard was "Hurray for us." Most kids took part only for the glory or to get out of class or to help their grades.

In addition to the danger of undermining learning, the idea of winning, or being best at all costs, can cause a steady erosion of values in adolescents. It may also cause outright psychological harm and it may generate open fear, hostility, or unhealthy pride.

Other dangers of competition are generated by placing students in track programs and by teacher favoritism. In these situations it is possible for talented students to develop superior attitudes and for less privileged students to develop inferior ones. Recognition that goes constantly to the same students tempts

even the most gentle spirits to inflate their egos. When feelings of the "elite" versus "hoi-polloi" materialize, the entire school experience can become destructive.

Even in schools where there is some distribution of recognition with "It's Academic" television teams on the one hand and sports heroes on the other, the squeeze that omits public praise to the in-between student can become a threat to school morale and personal growth. Is it not this kind of atmosphere that contributes to the alienation felt by many young people at present?

Many schools now seek a way of rewarding a large number of students by giving a school letter based on a point system for grades, citizenship, organization membership (including sports activities), and contributions to school life—large and small. While it is still not a really satisfactory technique, such a system does allow more students to achieve recognition—and thus permits large numbers of them to see recognition as attainable. A weakness of this technique has been pointed out in a study that reveals that "the higher the social-class background of the students, the more they tended to participate in extracurricular activities."³ This helps to create a situation similar to such organizations as honor societies, which tend to increase the feeling that "the rich get richer." When bright students are constantly rewarded other students may view "egg-heads" as remote and somehow suspect in the community. The carry-over to adult life is especially dangerous because it is in the adult world where respect for educated intelligence is most needed—and often most derided, or ignored or demeaned.

Science fairs, interschool athletics, writing contests, home economic and industrial arts competitions, band and vocal contests, drama, debating, and journalism contests all have obvious merits. But do teachers have a right to require students to participate in them? In addition to the dangers discussed earlier, there is also the possibility, as in many homework assignments, that a student will enter material that is not his own. The temptation to cheat or lie increases in direct relation to a student's inability, his failure to plan, his lack of effort, or his lack of interest. Such temptation may also grow from the demand for conformity or the desire for status through a prize. A student has just as much right to refuse to participate as he has to join in the competition.

Contests that are sponsored by commercial organizations or that have questionable standards may create genuine disorder where they should develop confidence and maturity.

Unfortunately, I knew almost nothing about the state journalism organization before I agreed to my students' entering the annual conference and newspaper contest. At the conference, I quickly discovered that most teachers and students regarded the experience with a holiday attitude and that the competing newspapers were generally appalling. I also discovered that the judges for the contest

³ Patricia Cayo Sexton, *Education and Income*. New York: The Viking Press, Inc., 1961, p. 170.

were a few staff members of a small college newspaper that could lay claim to very little journalistic technique. My students were eager and hopeful at the final session when a trophy for best state newspaper was awarded. When we were rated third place and the single worst paper (out of 22) was given the trophy, my students were as incredulous as I. I was woefully unable to explain the conference or the award to them, but they understood—on their own—the inadequacy of both. We did not discuss the day, but simply went off and had a good dinner, chalking the day up to experience. I am grateful that I had not stressed competition in my journalism classes or in working on the paper. We had simply worked to do what we believed was best—win or lose. I shudder when I consider what that day could have been.

Another problem related to extracurricular activities, which also tends to work against those of lower socioeconomic levels is that many activities cost money. Dues, money for special uniforms (like band uniforms), special dress (as for an initiation into a service club), or for trips and social functions are often beyond the financial means of many students. So rather than saying, "Those kids from across the tracks aren't interested in school activities," one might better look at the barriers that may keep them out, such as plain hard cash. Another factor could be distance. Where many students ride the school bus, only those who live nearby or who have cars or mothers free to chauffeur can participate in after-school activities; again, this will cut out a whole group of students. Some schools schedule an "activity" or late bus to transport students from a distance, but this may cost money too, or may not permit last-minute adjustments for students who suddenly decide to stay for a club but failed to arrange for a late bus ticket before school began that day.

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- Dawson, Helaine S. *On the Outskirts of Hope*. New York, McGraw-Hill, Inc., 1968. See especially pp. 18–26 for a description of a sensitive teacher's awareness of the impact on disadvantaged older adolescents of seating arrangement and classroom atmosphere.
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- Inlow, Gail M. *Maturity in High School Teaching*. Englewood Cliffs, N.J., Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1964, pp. 34–36. Identifies the recordkeeping and the extracurricular activities of the teacher.
- Jackson, Philip W. *Life in Classrooms*. New York, Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1965. An extremely insightful analysis, based on observation and interview data, regarding the intangibles of classroom interaction. Well worth thoughtful reading though most of "hard" data is on upper elementary grades.

- Kohl, Herbert. "Names, Graffiti, and Culture," *The Urban Review* 3, April 1969, 24-37.
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Educators' Jigsaws

units and lessons

8

Teaching is far too complex a task to lend itself to routinized procedures. The factors that make for good teaching are not agreed upon by educators at the college level or even by classroom teachers in the field. Thus it is impossible to set out a list of procedures which, if followed, will guarantee success in teaching for every teacher, for all students, at all times. What works for one teacher or for one group of students may be a dismal failure for another teacher in another setting.

In this chapter, emphasis will be placed upon those elements of pedagogy which have demonstrated their utility in practice. Current procedures that, while relatively new, appear to have promise will also be discussed. The major emphasis is upon the ways in which a teacher achieves coherence in developing the content or skill he wishes to teach and the ways in which he calls upon various pedagogical approaches to make this instruction maximally effective.

Why Plan?

It is hard to believe that this kind of teaching can go on in a big city in the second half of the twentieth century, but this is exactly the situation in which I spent some miserable hours. Miss F. was compulsive. The seats in her room were all placed in perfect rows, with the places for each desk and chair marked on the floor. On her desk was a green blotter, a small flag, and her

record book. On the window sills were neat, exactly spaced flower pots, glued down, of artificial geraniums. Her rigidity extended to her "planning." She had figured out the days of the school year, the pages of text material in the assigned book, and divided one by the other. And we read that much—no more and no less—every day of the year. Presidents could come and go (in fact one was killed during my unpleasant stay in her classroom), and we did not deviate from the assignment. She also had decided that our spelling was inadequate, so, although this was not the subject she was supposed to teach us, she systematically gave us two words a day sampled from the dictionary, starting with the letter A. We got to Z the day before school ended.

One of the teachers all of us hated was Mr. Hughes. It was a small high school, and in order to get to college we had to take our required science from him. If he had ever learned any science, none of us ever found out, because he didn't teach us any. He scoffed at the text, regaled us with tales of his years in the service, and sometimes startled us by announcing an exam on five chapters we had never discussed in class. Plan? He probably couldn't even spell the word. We felt cheated and angry because we knew our lack of science instruction would show up when we took the college entrance exams. I found out by accident that he actually had a very good background in science, but just never got around to organizing his material, and to this day I cannot understand why.

The teacher that we liked most was Mrs. Evans. Some called her a real nut or "kook," which was the pet word that year for people who were different from the average. She was famous for her pet enthusiasms. No one, outside that school, would believe that a roomful of big hulking boys would actually sit for hours hooking rugs! But she made it a work of art, a challenge—and something fun! How she got us into it, I don't know. But she was an artist herself, and part of her art was getting us interested in her interests.

After completing a college methods class where planning is stressed, student teachers will often be surprised by the apparent lack of planning done by their supervising teachers. One unfortunate result of this observation is that too many students reach the unwarranted conclusion that good teaching can occur without careful planning. While there is great variation in the amount and kind of planning by experienced teachers, invariably good teachers are those who have carefully planned their work. It is true that the plans of experienced teachers may not be as detailed as those required of student teachers and that they have been refined to fit the needs and personality of the teacher using them, but good teachers do plan. The apparently skimpy list of reminders they carry to the classroom is likely to be the condensation of a file full of materials and notes, mental as well as written, representing years of experience with a particular subject at a particular grade level. Until the beginning teacher has reached a comparable level of knowledge and skill, he will be wise to plan carefully for every minute. The teacher must remember that during any given class period he is responsible for the meaningful use of approximately 30-man-hours of time.

A teacher is somewhat like a juggler who has to keep many things up in the air at the same time—all the while appearing calm and relaxed. Just as the juggler has learned to “plan” his every move, the teacher must plan every aspect of every lesson. Careful organization of classroom activity intended to achieve course objectives is essential if those objectives are to be attained. Through careful planning, students and teachers are able to work together toward clearly understood purposes. At an immediate level, a well-planned lesson supplants the beginning teacher’s apprehensions and fears with confidence and assurance. As he develops teaching expertise, the individual will come to understand that the written lesson plan, as such, is not as important as the thought and preparation for teaching which it represents.

Unit Teaching

The teaching-learning process, as pointed out in an earlier chapter, has four main components: *Why? What? How? and How well?* Because of the inclusive and essential quality of these questions, teachers realize that a fragmented, page by page, chapter by chapter, approach to teaching is neither meaningful nor successful. Such an approach does not allow students or teachers to find answers that support or alter behavior. An approach that does allow these questions to become the basis of genuine teaching-learning is the unit of instruction, which incorporates all four components into an organized whole, making each crucial to success. In the unit, information and activities are organized so as to focus upon the development of some significant understanding, skill, ability, attitude, or appreciation that will confirm or modify behavior.

What Is a Teacher-made Unit?

The unit is a plan of instruction centered on a significant area of learning. It is a cooperative enterprise jointly planned and carried out by teachers and students. Instead of disconnected lessons, each day is devoted to exploration of the selected area of learning. A good unit is planned to take into account differences among members of the class. Students will have been involved in the planning from the beginning. To allow for student differences, a variety of activities will have been provided in the student planning. Although the unit often begins and is carried out in one subject, it frequently cuts across subject lines and makes use of related learning areas.

For instance, in a study of water pollution, a science class may delve into the politics of water legislation (or lack of it), may make a survey of the attitudes toward federal versus local control over industrial pollution, and may be led into the historical, legal anachronisms that impede water-control legislation—such as having selected rivers for state boundaries. The international implications of water use is a fascinating bypath for study. Analysis of water pollution would lead to both chemical and biological inquiry, and certainly considerable mathe-

matics may be employed, as data are gathered regarding the incidence of pollution in its various manifestations.

The same area of study, water pollution, might be an aspect of a social studies unit, however, concerned with federal-state relations or international problems. Again, to determine the dimensions of the topic, students might well go far afield into the sciences involved and also utilize mathematics to organize data obtained.

A unit can develop as described above and yet be based on two distinctly different premises. On the one hand, the assumption may be that the goals of the secondary school can be reached through the presentation of logically arranged knowledge. In that case, the unit may center on a subject-matter topic: the halogens; the short story; the Civil War. This is sometimes called a *subject-matter unit*. On the other hand, the assumption may be that the goals of the secondary school can be reached through experiences enabling students to meet their needs, individual and social. In that case, the unit will center on social and personal problems: "How can we prepare for good family living?" "How can we make democracy work better?" This is sometimes called an *experience unit*.

The *experience unit* is the more difficult to conduct. It takes special skill and more planning plus a wider range of activities and materials. Moreover, it requires greater elasticity in time allotment. The results may not satisfy the school administration, which may be primarily concerned with uniform outcomes. The expectation may be reinforced both by schoolwide testing programs and by the desires of other teachers. It may be difficult to obtain the same outcomes from experience units as from subject-matter units. Furthermore, as a beginning teacher, it is often difficult to get an experience unit started in the typical 50-minute school period, and even more difficult to maintain continuity. Fellow teachers may complain because students get involved in the unit at the expense of other assignments.

On the other hand, there are distinctive and positive rewards in teaching problem-centered or experience units if they can be managed. Through them, resources of vitality, interest, and creative motivation are opened up because students feel that they are working with the "real stuff" of life. The difference in classroom implementation between subject-matter and experience units may not have to be so sharply drawn. Subject-matter units can be planned to take account of student and social needs, can have subject-matter goals oriented to these needs, can utilize materials and activities to meet both the short-term subject-matter expectations and the long-term goals of the high school, and can include a broad evaluation program.

The rest of this chapter will be devoted to exploration of the first three of the components of the teaching-learning process as they apply to unit-teaching: *What? How? and Why?* Later chapters will be devoted to the "How well?" aspect.

Objectives: Know Why

Somewhere in his education, everyone has wondered, "What am I doing this for?" or, "What is it the teacher is trying to get across?" For no apparent reason, everyone has plodded through dull textbooks or sat through boring lectures attempting to assimilate seemingly isolated facts and bits of information. Many courses are described as "memory courses" because the grade attained was directly related to the quantity of facts recalled for the test. History taught this way, as one person put it, was "just one damn thing after another." Is this the reason for teaching history?

What endures in learning is that which is purposeful. When students and teachers have some specific objectives in mind which are worthwhile and clear, when the activities and procedures of the classroom are appropriate for the students and aimed at the objectives, then *and only then* can teaching be meaningful. In this situation both teacher and students know where they are going and how they are going to get there. Together they have decided that the topic under consideration can contribute something of value to their education and jointly they will pursue this end.

With the overall aim of producing well-rounded, competent individuals, different school subjects have varying objectives. Some teachers stress factual understandings; others will stress the development of skills and abilities; still others will concern themselves primarily with attitudes, appreciations, or values. Of course, some teachers will seek to accomplish all these.

A detailed discussion of objectives¹ is highly relevant to specific subject areas and is therefore outside the realm of this book. However, the objectives one pursues are immediately related to his philosophy of education, and it is therefore part of the overall task of beginning teachers to investigate basic works in this area.² The impact of current crises has produced considerable reevaluation of the secondary-school curriculum: where it is going, what it should include, how it should be organized, and who should be in charge. Obviously, such discussion is closely related to objectives and philosophy, but it is also outside the

province of a methods book.³ In no way does this suggest that the authors underestimate the importance of this issue in the development of the truly professional teacher.

In an attempt to achieve specific ways of determining educational objectives and in order to make a more exact assessment as to whether what is taught is in fact learned, an effort has been made to develop "behavioral objectives." For instance, if one's purpose is instructing students in the use of the slide rule, then a behavioral objective would be: "Given a simple slide rule, the student constructs the product of two 3-digit numbers correctly in three out of four examples." Such an objective, then, can be easily evaluated: the pupil who cannot use the slide rule for this purpose obviously has not achieved the educational objective described.

A number of issues surround the development of objectives in behavioral terms. Subjects such as mathematics, and other skill subjects, lend themselves to descriptions through behavioral objectives. Other subject areas, where such objectives as "appreciation" or "attitudes" (humanistic objectives), are to be developed, are more difficult to define in these terms. An art teacher may desire to develop creativity in her students, but how can this be described behaviorally? The teacher can describe other objectives in detail, such as knowing the various media of graphic portrayal (water color, oils, pastels); but knowledge of these media, and even demonstration of their use, may not include that elusive thing called "creativity." How, then, does the teacher state his objectives?

One recurrent criticism of education is that most teachers do not really know why they are teaching what they teach. For instance, when pressed, a teacher may defend spending several days on the War of 1812 because "It is part of American history." When asked why students should study American history, the same teacher would typically fall back upon the cliché, "Why, everyone ought to know his own national heritage." Yes, but why? And if everyone should know it, to what purpose? Some would claim, of course, that history for the sake of history is defense enough—or art for art's sake.

Many individuals and groups favor the inclusion of more black history in the standard history course, more literature by and about Negroes in English, more discussion of racial myths and stereotypes in biology. Adherents of this position say the purpose of such instruction is to aid black students gain more self-identity and to place in better perspective, for both black and white students, the role of the Negro in American life. But why?⁴ If students do gain this

³ John I. Goodlad and others, *The Changing School Curriculum*. New York: Fund for the Advancement of Education, 1966. See also William M. Alexander, *The Changing Secondary School Curriculum*. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1967; and *The Structure of Knowledge and the Curriculum*, G. W. Ford and Lawrence Pugno (eds.). Skokie, Ill.: Rand McNally & Company, 1964. Also Kimball Wiles, *The Changing Curriculum of the American High School*. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1963.

⁴ William C. Kvaraceus, and others, *Negro Self-Concept*. New York: McGraw-Hill, Inc., 1965. An interesting exchange on "Black History" versus "Negro History," and the relative utility of either approach will be found in two book reviews: *Crispus Attucks*, by D. Milender (reviewed by J. D. Grambs), and *Eyewitness: the Negro in American History*, by W. L.

"knowledge" about the Negro, wouldn't most teachers also desire a shift in attitudes? How can these be determined behaviorally: no more racial incidents in the cafeteria? But what if there haven't been any? These intangibles, the attitude and appreciation goals of education, are part of the lexicon of every teacher, but are slippery things to pin down as defensible or even definable educational objectives. Good citizenship is an aim, yes; but how does one link a particular piece of learning to such a global concept? What is the link between that which is to be learned and what the student does with it? Until some of these issues can be resolved, the problem of educational objectives will continue to plague educators.

Unfortunately, most teachers do not state their objectives clearly, or they evade the responsibility of defining them at all, or they retreat into a miasma of pedagogic jargon which conveys little meaning to anyone. Yet, as indicated earlier, even the most adroit and experienced educators are struggling to find ways to define educational objectives that will include both tangible, observable behavior changes and as well as subjective, but equally desirable, goals.

Even if the task is only moderately successful, the beginner should try to put into writing the objectives he has for whatever he is teaching. At the least he should go beyond such absurdities as listing "to read Chapter 4" as an objective for the week's unit of work. Why read the chapter? What in it is worth learning? What might students be able to do better or differently as a result? It would be useful practice to take one concept or skill and provide a list of defensible objectives for teaching it.

Content: Know What

The teacher must possess an in-depth knowledge of his subject in order to determine the objectives of his instruction. Understanding of subject matter is the *sine qua non* of good teaching. Many critics of teacher education have largely concentrated their remarks on the alleged deficiencies in the subject-matter preparation of prospective teachers.⁵ If one considers the attainment of subject-matter understandings alone to be his objective, then his task is essentially that of selecting that content which is relevant and omitting that content which is irrelevant for his purposes.

The seemingly transitory nature of subject-matter understandings in a rapidly changing world has created concern in recent decades. This has resulted in a reevaluation of the aims of education in virtually all subject areas. The trend in academic education in recent years has been to stress the development of

skills and abilities, especially those skills that may be subsumed under the heading of reflective thinking skills. The development of such skills and abilities requires that the teacher be thoroughly knowledgeable in learning theory and pedagogy as well as in his subject matter. In such teaching, subject-matter knowledge is important as the process for the development of intellectual skills. The rationale for this changing emphasis is quite simple; it is impossible to foretell specifically what will be needed in the year 2000. It follows, then, that if we can develop the skills and abilities for continuing self-education, that citizens will be able to adjust as necessary to changed conditions.⁶

The vast proliferation of knowledge in all fields is enough to frighten anyone from professing to be a master of that field. The secondary-school teacher fresh from his college classes probably will know more about some aspects of his subject than he ever will again. By teaching his subject, however, he will gain new insights because of the naïve and challenging questions of youth. His own efforts at self-education in areas of his subject where he feels deficient will also develop his proficiency.

Learning what one is to teach is most quickly learned when one has to teach it. The following are typical comments: "I never learned so much science in two years as I did in my eight weeks of student teaching"; "I had to stay up every night searching for answers to questions the kids asked which had never come up in my study of English in college."

There is more in any subject than any teacher can possibly teach to any class. How does one pick and choose? What is important to include, and what can one safely omit? Is it just as important to teach knitting as how to put in a zipper? Should one spend more time on the Romantic poets, or on twentieth-century writers? Again, a look at one's objectives may help in the selection of what to teach, but only by knowing the vast resources of one's field can the teacher pick and choose, tailoring his course to the changing needs of an ever-changing student body.

The professional teacher would ensure continuing knowledge of his field by belonging to a subject-matter organization and subscribing to one or more journals that report new findings. In this way he can help stay abreast of change. Beyond this, teachers must read, read, read!

Activities: Know How

In the following discussion of how one goes about building a unit, the assumption is made that teachers want to, and will, develop their own units. There is some reason to question both assumptions, however. In many school systems a resource guide, or a series of resource units, has already been prepared by teachers and consultants in the system. An individual is expected to use the already prepared material as a guide for his teaching: the thinking

⁶ Jerome S. Bruner, *Toward a Theory of Instruction*. Cambridge, Mass.: Bellnap Press of Harvard University Press, 1966. See Chapter 2, "Education as Social Invention."

about the unit has already been done, and the materials and activities already defined. Some beginning teachers may feel that there is little left for them to do. This may be true, depending on the rigor with which the school district expects conformity to its own pattern of instruction. In most areas, however, the guide is a suggested one. Teachers are expected to keep more or less within the subject-matter limits defined by the guide for obvious reasons: unless it were clearly decided, students might have two or three units in two or three different grade levels all devoted to the same topic.

There are other limitations on the teacher's development of his own units; one is the textbook. It takes an imaginative and hard-working teacher to find extra materials and devise different activities that make a textbook a minor partner in the educational task. The construction of most texts inhibits the teacher from devising another approach or rearranging the sequence of learning activities. (See Chapter 6.) However, with the development of many more teaching aids and the extensive publishing of paperback materials, the predetermined unit set by the chapters in the text will disappear as quickly as teachers demonstrate initiative and devise their own units and their own sequences.

Finally, there are prepackaged units being developed by many new curriculum-revision projects. Some, like the Physical Science Study Commission and the Biological Sciences Curriculum Study programs come with text, laboratory manuals, films, and filmstrips all ready for instant utilization. The task of the teacher is to press the right button or open the right pamphlet at the right place. Some of the teacher's manuals that accompany these new materials are so detailed that even the questions the teacher is to ask are provided. Although these materials are often very imaginative in their departure from the read-recite-quiz sequence of the standard academic class, they do, in their own way, inhibit teacher creativity.

However, given the vastness of the subject matter to be considered, as well as the changing nature of the subject, the creative teacher has much opportunity to roam; the new prepackaged units, when they are well done, are better training models than a wall-to-wall curriculum. Once the teacher has grasped the underlying philosophy behind a particular approach to his subject and finds it suits his style of thinking and teaching, he would then want to build his own units and restructure the "package" he has been given.

Stages in Building a Unit

Stage One: Preparing and Initiating the Unit

When a unit of instruction is undertaken for the first time a complete, if tentative, plan should be roughed out. It has already been said that a good unit is planned cooperatively by teachers and students. So it is. But in order to maintain orderly direction for instruction one must see some distinct goals, some definite activities, some specific sources of materials, some well-defined evaluation measures that one may use. Tentative choices of content will be based

on data collected about student differences and estimates of what experiences will meet their developmental needs. Moreover, rough plans will be modified in accordance with students' suggestions. But it is unwise to venture far without preplanning.

Good units do not just happen. If the teacher has done his work well, he will have an accurate profile of his class. He will know its heterogeneity. He will have considered what learning activities and materials are feasible and available. Nothing is quite so devastating to class morale as a stimulating introduction that is followed two days later by a terse announcement that the unit has to be abandoned because of a lack of resources. The best approach is the direct, honest one.

The initiating stage of a unit includes certain key steps on which the unit's ultimate effectiveness and success depend:

1. Preliminary realistic diagnosis by the teacher of (a) curriculum requirements, (b) student interests, capacities, and needs, and (c) relevant learning to date.
2. Tentative selection by the teacher of possible significant problems or areas of learning geared to the preliminary diagnosis.
3. Tentative preplanning by the teacher to clarify for himself the ways in which possible problems and areas may be approached most effectively.
4. Open, direct, and stimulating discussion with the class, designed to involve them in further diagnosis and choice of a problem or area for further study.
5. Sufficient preliminary exploration with the class to ensure that all students understand the why and what of the unit enterprise finally chosen.
6. The use of special materials, films, and activities (such as field trips) that will both clarify understanding of the unit problem and focus interest upon it.
7. Development of teacher-student plans adequate for the effective completion of the unit.

The last point is worth special attention. Once the problem has been chosen, careful joint planning of the scope and sequence of study is essential. The scope is usually indicated by dividing the problem into principal subquestions. Beginning teachers often have trouble at this stage because the limits of the problem are not clearly defined. Usually both teacher and students are eager to get into the problem if the first steps in beginning the unit have been stimulating. They see no point in mulling over the statement of key questions: it seems like a waste of time. However, unless the energies of the group are mobilized by a clear plan, they will be expended in a hundred directions and can never be utilized to bring the unit to a satisfactory culmination. The sequence of study is equally important. For example, it must be perfectly clear how the data necessary to answer subquestions or solve subproblems will be collected and who will do the job.

Stage Two: Developing the Unit

It is somewhat artificial to separate *initiation* from *development* of the unit. Actually, the second stage evolves naturally from the first. Although class participation is greatest during the second stage, the teacher continues to play a vital leadership role.

For example, the teacher performs an important function in helping the class define the objectives of its action and study. "Just what are we really after? What will we have when the unit is completed?"

Of course, this goal-setting really begins during the initiation of the unit, when plans are being agreed on. But the closer the students come to action in the unit, the more important it is that their goals be concrete and clear. By asking the right questions, by guiding the discussions, by helping the class verbalize and criticize its goals, the teacher plays a significant role.

The teacher plays an equally important role in helping the class decide which activities will best help it attain its objectives.

Development of the unit gives the teacher unusual and complex opportunities to provide student assignments that will maximize individual development. Because the unit is almost inevitably a complex undertaking that requires a variety of activities to carry it forward, student capacities may be challenged at many levels and in many areas. It is part of the teacher's function to guide the assignment of students to various activities according to both their ability to contribute and their ability to grow. Here the teacher makes decisions not so much on the basis of who will do a specific job most quickly or best, but on the basis of who will learn and grow the most.

As the work of the class on the unit progresses, the teacher continues to act as a guide, both for individual students and for their working groups. A class working on a unit is comparable to a busy laboratory or a workshop. Students work in small groups, or as individuals; they move about to use room facilities or to confer with others or to consult files or the classroom library. The teacher's voice is not the only one to be heard in the room. Conversation and discussion are necessary parts of work-going-forward. The teacher moves among the students, visiting individuals and groups, offering assistance, listening, observing, and guiding. He, too, is a learner in the unit and may be frank to say so.

The unit moves forward in time to its agreed date of completion. Individuals and groups in the classroom eventually feel their deadlines close at hand. These are times agreed to in planning, and progress toward them has been checked in the class planbook or unit log.

The second stage reaches completion with the students' presentation of their findings to the class. Some may utilize a panel format. Other members of the class may delegate a single spokesman to explain their findings to the whole group. Dramatizations, displays, prerecorded interviews, and a variety of other techniques may be used. Bit by bit, as the unit nears its close, the class finds itself rounding up data and insights it did not previously have. If the unit has gone

well, everyone in the class, including the teacher, will feel that he has shared in an important, meaningful venture.

Stage Three: Culminating and Evaluating the Unit

Whether a feeling of accomplishment is really warranted, what strengths and weaknesses the unit had, how it might have been improved and made more effective—all these are concerns of the teacher and the class in the culminating stage of the unit. The main business of the third stage in a unit of learning is evaluation.

Certainly the emphasis in the unit should be on the quality of the process as well as the end product. A unit is not evaluated solely on the basis of a beautifully illustrated or dramatic report. The processes of learning leadership and "follower-ship," developing good group attitudes and skills, fostering problem-solving abilities, and increasing student self-direction also deserve major consideration. If most of the gathered facts slip away in the ensuing years while these essential processes remain, the efforts of the unit will have been justified. A good culmination includes an evaluation of these processes by both teacher and students. The success or failure of a unit is not measured solely by a pencil-and-paper test of facts.

Evaluation, in the sense in which the word is used here, is a stock-taking by all concerned, aimed at assessing the findings of the study, the procedures that were used by the class, and the future implications of what has been learned.

It is important to look at an example of a particular unit of learning to see how one teacher applied the concept and steps outlined in the discussion of unit planning. Following is a unit developed for teaching in a rural public school.

What a Well-Planned Unit Looks Like

Unit Title: Introducing the Daily Newspaper in the Classroom (Social Studies or English)

Approximate time: three weeks

I. OBJECTIVES

Unit Objectives of *Understanding*: In the course of this unit the student should come to understand:

A. The role of the newspaper as an institution in our society

1. The daily newspaper performs a crucial role in informing the citizenry on public issues.
2. Freedom of the press is essential to maintaining a free, democratic society.
3. The newspaper provides a forum for varying opinions on public issues.
4. The newspaper is a sourcebook of contemporary history.

5. The newspaper provides information for daily functioning such as entertainment, economic activities, sports, and so on.
6. The press is related to other communications media.

B. Aspects of newspaper content

1. The role of the news services
2. The roles and purposes served by various features of the newspaper
3. The role of advertising in the press

C. Value judgments and the news

1. What makes "news"?
2. Editors make decisions as to the importance of news.
3. Reporters should seek objectivity in news reporting.
4. The source of news stories reflects judgment as to the importance of the news.
5. Editorials reflect the views of the newspaper on issues.
6. Columns and by-lined stories are different from news stories because they reveal personal opinions.

D. How newspapers vary from city to city and area to area in what they choose to stress in reporting

1. Variations resulting from local economic and geographic factors
2. Sensationalized reporting

Unit objectives of skills and abilities: The student should gain increased skill in:

E. Intelligent reading of the newspaper: determining and locating articles of continuing significance as opposed to those of transitory interest

F. Using reflective thinking skills

1. Separating fact from opinion
2. Determining whether conclusions follow from premises: evaluating premises
3. Determining whether there is sufficient evidence to support conclusions
4. Detecting biased reporting or slanting of the news
5. Noting the use of emotional words
6. Noting propaganda techniques in advertising

G. Interpreting editorial cartoons

H. Interpreting charts, graphs, and statistical data

I. Understanding geographical locations in the news

J. Improving reading and writing skills

1. Scanning and skimming
2. Reading for main ideas
3. Varying reading rate according to the type of story

4. Writing editorials and news stories
5. Recognizing effective writing

Unit objectives of attitudes, values, and appreciations: The student should:

- K. Come to appreciate the role of the newspaper as a means of maintaining an informed public
- L. Develop the habit of keeping informed by daily newspaper reading
- M. Come to value freedom of the press as essential to a free, democratic society
- N. Seek to develop the attitude of suspended judgment on controversial issues until sufficient information is obtained

II. ACTIVITIES

A. Initiatory Activities

1. Secure the cooperation of a local newspaper to obtain a daily newspaper for each student.
2. Discuss the role of the newspaper with class (students help formulate and revise objectives).
3. Show film, *Tribune Deadline* [Copley Films, La Jolla, California].
4. Students write for out-of-town newspapers for same date for purposes of comparison.
5. Plan approach to developmental activities; form groups and committees for reports; decide on individual and group projects.

B. Developmental Activities

1. Local newspaper person to discuss the role of the newspaper.
2. Show film, *From Type to Print*, history of printed communication [Copley Films, La Jolla, California].
3. Field trip to local newspaper plant to observe how a newspaper is put together.
4. Study of local newspaper to determine type and placement of stories, and so forth.
5. Comparison of newspapers received from around country as a result of students' requests.
6. Individual and group study and research for reports, and the like.

C. Culminating Activities

1. Presentation and evaluation of reports to class
2. Summary panel presentation [Possible topics: "The Responsibility of a Newspaper to Its Audience," "The Role of the Newspaper as One of the Mass Media"]
3. Production of class newspaper featuring significant world events

4. Discussion of objectives and the determination of the extent to which they were achieved
5. Unit test if determined appropriate

The Daily Lesson Plan

The unit of learning, at its best, requires of the teacher long-range planning for resources and materials; but, as indicated earlier, significant day-to-day planning is shared with student groups. When instruction is organized by more conventional areas of subject matter, the teacher's responsibility for day-by-day planning is much more direct and he will need specific lesson plans. This does not mean that he cannot engage in cooperative planning or group work or joint evaluation in his classes. But it does mean that his range of choices is less extensive because the preliminary screening has been done by the teacher. This kind of lesson plan, aimed primarily at the presentation of subject matter, will be discussed in terms of: 1) lesson purposes; 2) activities and materials; 3) assignments; and 4) evaluation.

Lesson Objectives

The lesson plan should take cognizance of the long-term goals of the secondary school in order to place the immediate objective in perspective. Daily objectives must be realistically modest. Both teachers and students tend to overestimate what can be accomplished in a 50-minute period: how long does it take to bake a cake? Watching some home economics classes race through a cooking lesson in order to "beat the bell" shows clearly the irrationality of the typical schedule. Yet the secondary-school teacher often is forced to live and plan within this typical and archaic framework.

It is good technique to help students phrase their purposes in the form of questions, because responsibility for action may be implied in a question. Questions should stress concrete problems rather than abstractions; problems can be made concrete if conceived in terms of everyday applications. This is especially important when planning a single day's lesson.

Activities and Materials

There can of course be no hard-and-fast rules about how many activities and what materials are required for a secondary school period. But it is certain that there should be some variety of both within the hour. The class should rarely discuss all period, or listen to the teacher all period, or even meet in groups all period. For a band or orchestra to practice over and over just one selection or piece of a selection all period can be deadening. If the piece is particularly troublesome, it is valuable to raise group morale by having a "choose your own piece" to end the period, or by allowing groups to separate for sectional practice of difficult passages.

Some kind of time budget will be necessary. Nothing is so awkward or conducive to chaos as a slice of idle time—idle because nothing has been planned. The beginning teacher should always have a number of alternatives and extras in his plan. He will regularly have need of these extras. Moreover, he invites disaster if he trusts to his ability to extemporize.

Evaluation

Evaluation of the day's work does not imply merely a 5-minute quiz or grading an assignment or conducting an oral question-and-answer period. Each of these may have its place; but the effective teacher will take equal note of how well the student worked in his group, what resources he found to supplement his investigation or presentation, and the quality of the questions he asked. There are useful ways of observing behavior in the classroom, and they belong in a sound scheme of evaluation. Evaluation techniques are presented in detail in chapters 13 and 14.

A Sample Daily Lesson Plan

Unit: Introducing the Daily Newspaper

I. Objectives: The role of advertising in the daily newspaper

The student should understand:

- A. That advertising is the main source of revenue for the newspaper
- B. That advertisers base their decisions on which news media to use largely on the percentage of the potential buying public reached by the particular news source
- C. That advertisers are mainly concerned with selling a product
- D. The social implications of possible attempts by advertisers to influence newspapers by threatening to withhold advertising

The student should develop these skills:

- E. Analyzing persuasive techniques used in advertising
- F. Analyzing writing style used in advertising

II. Activities

- A. Students report on relationship of advertising to news.
- B. Class examination of the percent of paper space given to advertising (measure column inches of news and advertisements).
- C. Find cost of various types of advertising.
- D. Discuss the role of advertisers in decisions on newspaper policy or position on issues.

Questions: (for discussion) Can cigarette manufacturers prevent newspaper editors from publishing articles that connect smoking with lung cancer?

E. Analyze advertisers' language.

Reminders: Reports due Thursday. Mr. Langer of *The Press* will be here on Thursday. Read Chapters 3-5 of Vance Packard's *The Hidden Persuaders*. Prepare questions to ask visitor about role and operation of the professional press.

Assignment: Find examples of the following types of advertising techniques in newspapers or magazines: (1) use of loaded words, (2) appeal to authority (3) appeal to the emotions. Check classroom files as well as other school and at-home sources for these. Be prepared to discuss the psychological basis of such advertisements. Consult Chapter 6 of your text, pp. 180-185 for a discussion of these techniques.

Evaluation: (Reflective comments by teacher concerning the lesson's success, made as soon afterward as possible.)

Most cooperating teachers, and college supervisors, expect a student teacher to make overall unit plans, and also daily lesson plans. The exact procedure varies with each institution, and often with each school system and teacher. In some school systems, the teachers must turn in their weekly plans in detail at the beginning of each week; the principal may check and return them with comments. Other systems expect a planning book to be available for the principal or supervisor whenever the classroom is visited, or a substitute is needed. Some systems leave the planning completely up to each teacher.

Planning outlines vary. Some typical outlines used to help student teachers organize their planning are shown on the following pages.

Crucial Factors in Planning

Students and Teachers Plan Together

The teacher's plan should be tentative only; the final plan for action should be conceived jointly by students and teacher. The planning will revolve around such questions as "What are the divisions of this problem?"; "How shall we go about finding out how people feel on this subject?"; "What rules do we need in order to go on that trip we proposed?" These are questions of classroom procedure and student conduct as well as of choice of subject matter. Such planning is fundamental to democratic teaching.

One word of caution concerning the use of student-teacher planning: avoid overdoing it. Constant insistence on student choice can be just as frustrating as its complete denial. Time should be set aside for student-teacher planning shortly after the initiation of a new unit. There should be short planning sessions for the

A TEACHING UNIT (Science)

Student Teacher:
Cooperating Teacher:
School:
Behavioral Goals:
1.
2.
3.

Unit Title:
Approximate Teaching Time:
Major Concepts To Be Developed:
1.
2.
3.

General Content Outline	Instructional Methods	Instructional Materials and Equipment	Evaluation Methods and Procedures	Advance Preparation; Reference Materials	Comments

Subject _____ Teacher _____

Presentation Date _____ Period 1 _____ 2 _____ 3 _____ 4 _____ 5 _____ 6 _____

I. Purpose (what you want the student to learn):

II. Assignment:

III. Procedures and Time Indicated (Lesson or Demonstration Outline)	IV. Resources (Tools and Equipment Needed)
	V. Evaluation and Suggested Presentation Improvement
	VI. Reminders and Special Notes

Subject _____ Teacher _____ Presentation Dates _____ Per 1 _____ 2 _____
 3 _____ 4 _____
 5 _____ 6 _____

Purpose:

Time	Content	Method	Materials	Evaluation
(Minutes)				

Assignment:

Unit_____ Student Teacher's Name_____

Topic_____ Class_____

Objectives:_____ Date_____

Time	Activities and Procedures

Assignment:

Materials and Equipment	Advance Preparation and References

Teacher_____

Subject_____

Unit_____

Date_____

Period_____

Topic_____

I. Statement of Problem:

II. Aims (Long-range Goals):

III. Objectives (Short-range Goals):

IV. Materials:

V. Procedures:

VI. Evaluation:

VII. Outcomes:

VIII. Sources and Resources:

Unit_____ Student Teacher's Name_____

Topic_____ Class_____

Objectives:_____ Date_____

Time	Activities and Procedures

Assignment:

Materials and Equipment	Advance Preparation and References

Teacher_____

Subject_____

Unit_____

Date_____

Period_____

Topic_____

I. Statement of Problem:

II. Aims (Long-range Goals):

III. Objectives (Short-range Goals):

IV. Materials:

V. Procedures:

VI. Evaluation:

VII. Outcomes:

VIII. Sources and Resources:

day as the work progresses. Evaluative sessions are important in keeping standards of work and conduct at an acceptable level, but the balance of class time should be devoted to problem discussion, study and research, and individual and small-group work.

Planning sessions should be stimulating and well paced. The students should feel that the opportunity to choose and evaluate is real. The teacher must bring a genuine enthusiasm to the planning sessions, showing his own eagerness to learn and evaluate progress along with his students. He should seek exciting opportunities for learning even in his students' most mundane and naïve suggestions.

Can planning be applied in such logically organized classes as algebra, geometry, chemistry, and physics? Yes! Although some teachers do not develop large, problem-centered units in these subjects, there is still ample room for student-teacher planning. Such questions as, "How much time do we need for study in class?"; "Should we do lab work in pairs, in groups, or individually?"; "How much credit should be discounted on homework if papers are messy and untidy?" are best answered by students and teacher working together and are pertinent in all classrooms. Although valuable class time must, of course, be spent on this planning, the teacher will find that much less time will be spent later in pushing reluctant students and in checking up on neglected assignments.

Recognizing Student Needs

When a teacher draws upon all he knows about adolescents in general and those in his class in particular he is attempting to recognize their needs. He identifies those needs relevant to his course, content, and experience. For example, the biology teacher knows that adolescents must understand and accept bodily changes. Therefore, if biology content gives students a chance to understand their own physical equipment better, they will be motivated to learn. A physical education teacher who encountered a similar problem handled it this way:

During the year Mr. George became aware of the variety of hygiene problems of his physical education class and concluded that the upcoming health unit should evolve from the interest of the students. Since he wanted to ensure that they realized their interests and concerns, he arranged for his students to spend two class periods browsing in a variety of reference works, magazines, hygiene and health texts, and through a file of hygiene-related materials he had collected across the years. The school nurse gave a short talk to the classes, outlining some hygiene problems she had encountered among teen-agers. Mr. George saw to it that the boys met in small groups to voice their concerns; finally, a committee collated the interests indicated by the various groups. Committee reports were given in class. Mr. George helped the class divide their concerns into two basic lists. Boys were given their choice of the two categories for study and pursued their work on both an individual and small-group basis. At the end of the unit

each group, working under the direction of student leaders, made some form of presentation to the class, sharing the learning each had gained.

Employing materials not immediately related to classroom study can enlist the interest of students who may not otherwise "be hooked." The use of such books as *History of the Lathe to 1850* or *A History of Civil Engineering*⁷ may well lead boys whose interests lie in mechanical or hand skills to a study of history. A pamphlet such as *El Primero Paso Importante*⁸ which describes, in easy-to-read Spanish, "the first big step" of entering school, may also be an interest tool. Not only can the foreign-language student profit from reading about content already familiar to him from experience, or from which he may profit because of interest in children, but the foreign student suffering difficulties with the English language may find it helpful background to one phase of American life. Such a student would also be able to share the material with his parents and thus aid them to smooth the school entry of younger children still at home. Another blending of interests may occur through the use of resources like *The Letters from the Captain's Wife*, a portfolio of New England materials containing historical information and adapted recipes of the nineteenth century—presented in letter form.⁹

Helping Students Become Aware of Their Needs

Often the things people need, they do not know they need! Thus, adolescents have no need to learn about lenses and the refraction of light in physics class, but a skilled teacher, by showing them all kinds of lenses—in eyeglasses, microscopes, car headlights, binoculars—can excite their curiosity and create "a need to find out" why and how light can be bent. Creating such an awareness in a psychologically sound manner means that the teacher has a medium for widening the experience field of the student.

If a teacher wishes to interest students in bettering their oral skills, he may provide motivation by recording several job interviews and then asking the class to judge who would be most likely to get the job—and why. Thus he provides a springboard for concentrated practice in self-improvement. While this technique is important for all students, it is essential for the culturally disadvantaged whose admittance to, and survival in, the working world may well depend upon the ability to communicate through acceptable speech.

⁷ Robert S. Woodbury, *History of the Lathe to 1850*. Boston: Massachusetts Institute of Technology Press, 1968. Hans Straub, *A History of Civil Engineering*. Boston: Massachusetts Institute of Technology Press, 1968. Other titles of this kind available are: *A History of Western Technology* by Friedrich Klemm; *A History of Mechanical Engineering* by Aubrey F. Burstall; *History of the Gear-Cutting Machine*, *History of the Grinding Machine*, and *History of the Milling Machine*, all by Robert S. Woodbury. See also Eric Sloane, *A Museum of Early American Tools*. New York: Funk & Wagnalls Company, 1964.

⁸ National School Public Relations Association, *El Primero Paso Importante*. Washington, D.C.: The Association, 1966.

⁹ *The Letters from the Captain's Wife*. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of the Interior, 1966.

Conveying Enthusiasm for Learning

Enthusiasm is contagious. The wise teacher does much to convey and capture enthusiasm by utilizing units focused on genuine concerns of the students. The problem-centered unit is, in a sense, its own motivation. It is the teacher's task to see to it that the problem is of deep concern. Adolescents readily respond to, and just as readily reject, a work that only pretends to be a "problem." One reliable test of what is a good problem for study is the speed with which students comprehend it. If a teacher has to do all the work of building enthusiasm over the "exciting" material, then it can be assumed that the problem is not really important to the adolescent.

Setting Goals Important to Students

Too often the real thing a student works for is a grade. Actually, of course, this is motivation too: some students can and will work hard to get a good grade. But the result is low-level learning. The student actually is not concerned with what he is learning, or even how, but only with a status label. Good motivation establishes goals that are in themselves important: to be able to read recipes, to be able to fix simple electrical circuits, to appreciate the culture of a foreign people, or to have greater skill in taking dictation. To endure, learning must be based on more than earning a grade.

Relating the Goal to the Student's Range of Abilities

A task remains challenging so long as the student is fairly certain that he can perform it and perform it with some pride in his accomplishment. Success must taste good, must not be too cheaply won, and must leave important resources for further learning.

Good motivation is positive and is based on learning that makes sense to the learner. It is not negative. Too often, the motivation used by a teacher takes one of the following forms:

"If you don't do this well, you will have ten additional problems!"

"We'll have a test tomorrow if you waste this study period!"

"We can't stay on this topic all semester! You'd better start studying harder or you'll flunk the exam."

"Since you did so badly on that last test, we'll have to spend more time on this material."

Such phrases, and their underlying negative attitude, do not provide good motivation. Whenever the teacher expresses this attitude he builds student antipathy to learning. From then on, it is a dull and dreary struggle for both teacher and student to plough through the drab desert of psychology, or chemistry, or German, or bookkeeping.

The Assignment Is Crucial in Planning, Too

If assignments are used to carry the day's work forward, they should make clear what assignment to do, how they are to be done, and why they are to be done. Assignments must be specific: Who is to do what? What difficulties are involved? What is the deadline? In order for assignments to lead to further learning, it is important that they be made at the right time—on the basis of inadequacies in discussion, perhaps as the result of or to complete a problem-solving experience.

It was near the end of the period in a junior class. Bored students were slowly closing their books, mentally calculating exactly how many more minutes were left to the period. The minute hand jerked on with a slow, dull click. Miss Kwong always waited until the last possible moment to make the assignment for the next day. Often the crucial words were spoken as the bell shrilled out, effectively drowning her voice. Then students anxiously and irritably demanded, "What pages are we supposed to read?"

Today she seemed particularly labored in giving the assignment. "Now I want you all to read Chapter 3 in your text. That is about forty pages. You should be able to do that at home in about an hour. Be ready to answer questions on the chapter, and perhaps we'll have a short quiz if you aren't prepared well enough. I'm going to check in my recordbook and call on those of you who haven't been doing much in class lately."

Does this description seem exaggerated? Or is it a typical episode in hundreds of secondary-school classrooms? A look at a teacher performing the assignment function at a higher level should be informative:

It was near the end of the period in a junior class; Tom was in front of the room, answering questions about a report he had made on a visit to the telephone company. He had brought back some advice from the personnel manager on what high-school students should do to prepare for telephone-company work. Questions were being fired at him right and left. Tom was having difficulty remembering all of them. Just then Miss Murphy interrupted: "Bill, I think our time is about up. That was a splendid report, and there are many more questions to be asked. Since we haven't time now to answer all the questions, suppose each person jots down tonight three or four really important questions he would like answered. We'll ask Tom to answer them the day after tomorrow."

Miss Murphy then turned to the board and wrote: "Assignment for Period 2, Wednesday: three or four questions on the telephone-company visit."

"Also," she said, "There are some books here in the classroom and in the library on how to prepare for a job. After we hear from Fred and Mary tomorrow on their visit to the cannery, it would be helpful to have some summaries of these books for those who could not make trips. Suppose each of you takes one

article or book and prepares it for Thursday. Anyone else interested can see me." These directions were put on the board, with the names and topics. There still remained a few moments of class. Students gathered their books; John, Bob, and Harry came to the shelf and discussed books in which they were interested. The teacher briefly chatted with them and made an appointment to talk with them before class the next day.

In this example of a different approach to assignment-giving, the teacher has capitalized on what is occurring in the class at the moment and within the framework of an on-going activity. Specific students are given special work to do. No threats are made; instead, the assignment is so stated that it follows naturally out of the discussion. It may be wise at this time to read "Out of Class Study," Chapter 11.

Providing for Inquiry

A central theme of many new curricular changes has been the emphasis on "inquiry" and "discovery." Although several aspects of this approach are reminiscent of John Dewey's early formulations about problem solving and his analysis of how people learn, the current approach goes somewhat beyond Dewey's concepts.

In the inquiry and discovery approach students, under the teacher's guidance, proceed along intellectual steps that require an integration of past knowledge and skills along with an attempt to discern and to organize new knowledge and skills. Opportunity is thereby increased for the interaction of life and learning, of knowledge and action, while at the same time students are engaged at a maximum level of attention and activity. The rapid obsolescence of facts in the twentieth century makes this approach—concerned as it is with basic principles, concepts and generalizations—obligatory if students are to learn how to continue to learn.

The idea of inquiry-discovery, according to Jerome Bruner, is for the student to put things together for himself, to be his own discoverer.¹⁰ For this reason, the teacher acts as a catalyst and not as a dispenser of information. He offers students a problem, issue, or question and encourages them to inquire into its nature and possible solution; he guides students' investigation and clarifies their positions and conclusions by soliciting hypotheses from them. Throughout, the teacher gives only limited clues and deflects direct questions raised by his students. Indeed, rather than answering such questions, he leads them with additional questions into other possibilities of thought. Students test their hypotheses, gather and analyze whatever data they possess, and ultimately arrive at a statement that concludes, generalizes, or solves.

Reinforcement of what students have induced is effected by having them think of additional situations in which the outcome may apply; having them consider

¹⁰ Jerome S. Bruner, *The Process of Education*. Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1960.

additional examples of a principle of generalization they have discovered; or by asking them to practice, on new or additional material, the conclusions they have reached. The application of what has been learned is important in fusing both knowledge and the process by which students have worked.

Of basic importance for the inquiry and discovery techniques is careful preparation of the kinds of problems with which students will be confronted. Choice of questions is paramount, since the ill-phrased or insignificant question can confuse and misdirect. It is important, too, for the teacher to present students with problems that are not so rigid in conclusion that the questions raised become mere steps in a guessing game.

Although some learning theorists, such as Ausubel,¹¹ claim that the term "discovery" should be applied only to original insights and solutions, it is generally agreed that one "discovers" when he finds for himself something previously unknown to him—usually the operation of a principle or generalization. Most educators hold that it is irrelevant whether a student discovers something original; that what is important is that he have the fulfilling experience of saying, "Aha! I have found a solution!"

Inquiry and discovery can be employed quickly, as in a determination of grammatical generalizations, an examination of principles of density in chemistry, or an observation of properties of numbers in mathematics. It may also be study that requires either a laboratory or a project approach, demanding involved investigations over an extended period of time, for instance: the causes of slum deterioration; the causes of health and safety hazards in the home and on the job; or the philosophical relationships existing among selected works of literature, art, drama, and music.

The math teacher, Miss Danaan, wanted her students to discover the principle of determining the square of numbers ending in 5. She presented students with statements showing the squares of 15, 25, 35, 45, and 55 ($15^2 = 15 \times 15 = 225$, . . .). Next Miss Danaan asked them to tell her the square of 95 without figuring on paper. When students admitted they were stymied, Miss Danaan led them through a series of questions about the given arithmetical statements which showed that all such squares ended in 25. Next, students discovered that the first digits of the answer turn out to be the first digits of the initial number multiplied by one more than the number represented by the first digits. Once the principle was uncovered, students quickly gave the square of 95.

In an inner-city seventh-grade home economics class, Mrs. Herbert presented students with numerous pieces of different fabrics, asking them to suggest ways in which the materials were similar and dissimilar. Through examination of the fabrics and a series of observations and questions ("In what ways are they alike?"; "In what ways are they different?"; "Describe the way they feel."; "What causes

¹¹ David P. Ausubel "Learning by Discovery: Rationale and Mystique," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, 45, December 1961, 18-58.

the difference in appearance and touch?"') the students concluded that fabric differences occur because of fiber content, weave, and finishing procedures.

In the physical education class, Mr. Jarboe had his students stand, lean forward and backward, and return to position, considering as they did so what was happening to their bodies in the process. Ideas such as "weight shift" and "balanced state" were clarified in a discussion centering around "how one maintains balance." Students ultimately generalized that in order for balance to be maintained the weight mass (or center of gravity) must fall over the base of support. Following student-given examples of bases of support other than feet, the principle was applied to the squat balance tumbling skill as the first of a series of tumbling activities.

English students were confronted by Mr. Ball with a series of sentences, all of which contained appositive words or phrases. Through analysis of the sentences, and a generalization reached about them, his students not only determined a definition of appositives but also made conclusions about case, number, and punctuation. Mr. Ball then asked the students to write a series of paragraphs in which appositives were freely employed.

Mr. Moore's social studies class was asked to consider an unsolved problem of history: What became of the members of the "Lost Colony" of Roanoke, North Carolina? Through an examination of seventeenth-century maps, readings in primary sources of the period, commentary by a variety of historians, open-class brainstorming and questioning, students "discovered" their own well-supported conjecture and, moreover, recognized that they had evolved their conclusion in the same investigative and objective manner of historians.¹²

The concerns of inquiry—and the possibilities of discovery—are limitless within each subject area. Since every group is unique, teachers have the responsibility of helping students find the most appropriate method of inquiring into, and making discoveries about, the problems they face. Teachers are generally helped in this choice since new curriculum materials in almost all fields utilize variations of the inquiry and discovery approach because it is motivating, and learning is more enduring.

Successful teaching for discovery demands that teachers possess and reveal patience. The act of discovery through questioning, investigating, and experimenting requires a longer period of time than lecture or textbook approaches allow. Teachers, therefore, must discard the notion that they will "cover" a specified amount of material—achieving questionable breadth. Instead, they must accept the realization that what students pursue will be explored in depth and will, because of its process and self-involvement, prove to be of lasting significance in the students' lives.

Teachers must be prepared, as well, to remain comparatively silent, lending guidance and clarification only when needed, so that students will truly dis-

¹² Jean Carl Harrington, *Search for The Cittie of Raleigh*. Archeological Research Series Number Six. Washington, D.C.: National Park Service, U.S. Department of the Interior, 1962.

cover for themselves. Accepting and supportive behavior—both verbal and non-verbal—is essential if students are to make discoveries in the classroom.

Although the terms "inquiry" and "discovery" are relatively new in the lexicon of educators, good teachers have always utilized the principles those words encompass. Indeed, much teaching that involves high motivation and self-involvement possesses the characteristics of inquiry and discovery techniques without benefit of the labels.

RECOMMENDED READING

- Alberty, Harold, and Elsie J. Alberty. *Reorganizing the High School Curriculum*. New York: Crowell-Collier and Macmillan, Inc., 1962. Informative discussion of improvements needed the quality of instruction, including suggestion of means whereby administrators and teachers may bring about curriculum innovations.
- Bruner, Jerome S. *The Process of Education*. New York: Random House, Inc., 1960. Report of a conference of scientists and educators discussing improvement of science teaching in the schools. One of the most influential books for curriculum change written in the past decade.
- . *Toward a Theory of Instruction*. Cambridge, Mass.: The Belknap Press of Harvard University Press, 1966. A collection of essays expressing Bruner's views on the ways in which learning takes place.
- Clark, Leonard, Raymond L. Klein, and John B. Burks. *The American School Curriculum*. New York: Crowell-Collier and Macmillan, Inc., 1965. A thorough and instructive book that deals with the various disciplines as currently taught and the new trends emerging in curriculum reorganization.
- Goodlad, John I. (ed.). *The Changing American School*. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1966. Sixty-fifth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part 2. Informative, overall view of recent changes in American education, with valuable sections on the changing organization of learning.
- Gwynn, J. Minor, and John B. Chase, Jr. *Curriculum Principles and Social Trends*. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1969. One of the better books in the area of curriculum, dealing with research and innovation.
- Heath, Robert W. (ed.). *New Curriculum*. New York: Harper & Row, Publishers, 1964. Fourteen articles discussing recent changes in curriculum. Informative background in all areas of the curriculum.
- Mager, Robert F. *Preparing Instructional Objectives*. Palo Alto, Calif.: Fearon Publishers, 1962.
- Massialas, Byron G. "Inquiry," *Today's Education*, May 1969, 58, No. 5, 40-42; see also Zevin, Jack, "Mystery Island: A Lesson in Inquiry," pp. 42-43; Sugrue, Mary, and Jo A. Sweeney, "Check Your Inquiry-Teaching Technique." All three articles are part of a special section on inquiry. The first discusses the values of inquiry teaching and defines the roles the teacher plays. The second article offers an interesting example of inquiry teaching, while the third article suggests a checklist that teachers can use to evaluate their own ability to teach inquiringly.
- Miles, Matthew B. (ed.). *Innovation in Education*. New York: Teachers College Press, Columbia University, 1964. A major resource for those interested in educational change: examines how it takes place, resistance to change, and some of the new programs that have promise.

- Patterson, Franklin. *High Schools for a Free Society*. Glencoe, Ill.: The Free Press, 1960. Presents a challenging view of what modern secondary education could look like in terms of both process of instruction and content.
- Postman, Neil, and Charles Weingartner. *Teaching as a Subversive Activity*. New York: Delacorte Press, 1969. Exciting, provocative, practical approach to the "inquiry classroom."
- Rosenbaum, Dorothy, and Conrad F. Toepfer. *Curriculum Planning and School Psychology*. Buffalo, N.Y.: The Hertillon Press, 1966. Unit planning section demonstrates cooperative planning of units for maximum teaching-learning experiences.
- The Scholars Look at the Schools*. Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1962. Report of a seminar in which representatives of the various disciplines discuss the proper role of each in the overall school program.
- Schwab, Joseph J. "Inquiry, the Science Teacher, and the Educator," *The School Review*, 68, Summer 1960, No. 2, 176-195. Considers the need for, and the advantage of, teaching science as inquiry.
- Strategy for Curriculum Change*. Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1965. Discussion and analysis of strategies designed to update educational programs.
- Sund, Robert B., and Leslie W. Trowbridge. *Teaching Science by Inquiry in the Secondary School*. Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill, Books, Inc., 1967. Directed at both junior- and senior-high-school science teachers, this work stresses inquiry teaching through laboratory experiences in physical, earth, and biological sciences. Includes suggested assignments, questions, activities, and exercises.
- Walbesser, H. H. *Constructing Behavioral Objectives*. College Park, Md.: Bureau of Educational Research and Field Studies, College of Education, University of Maryland, 1968.
- Wiles, Kimball. *The Changing Curriculum of the American High School*. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall Inc., 1963. Presentation of present and needed curriculum offerings and innovations.

Journals Which Present Stimulating Descriptions of Classrooms at Work:

- AE: Artist Educator. (Quarterly magazine of the Philadelphia schools). 4347 Baltimore Ave., Philadelphia, Pa. 19104. The "artist" in the title of this journal refers to the creative teacher; covers all subject fields with special emphasis on the new ideas of new teachers.
- Curriculum Materials. Washington, D.C.: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development (National Education Association Annual). Lists new curriculum materials developed by school systems each year.
- Educators Guide to Media and Methods. (September through May) 134 North 13th Street, Philadelphia, Pa. 19107. Far-ranging techniques for imaginative teaching.
- The Journal of Applied Behavioral Science*. (Quarterly) National Training Laboratories, National Education Association, 1201 16th St., N.W., Washington, D.C. 20036. Describes theory and practice of using sensitivity training and group processes.
- The Journal of Creative Behavior*. (Quarterly) Creative Education Foundation, 1300 Elmwood Ave., Buffalo, N.Y. 14222. Suggests ways of applying research on creativity.

- This Magazine Is About Schools.* (Quarterly) P.O. Box 876, Terminal 'A', Toronto 1, Ontario, Canada. Fact, fiction and fantasy about innovating school and classroom philosophy and practice.
- The Urban Review.* (Bimonthly) Center for Urban Education, 33 West 42 St., New York 10036. Reports new programs and problems faced in urban school centers, particularly New York City.
- Vista Volunteer.* (Monthly) Volunteers in Service to America. Office of Economic Opportunity, 1111 18th St., N.W., Washington, D.C., 20506.

When More Is Better *groups and group processes*

9

It had been a very lively discussion. Many hands had been raised. Ideas pro and con were listed on the board. Mrs. Jackson felt quite pleased with the quality of the thinking that had been displayed. She had only one small nagging doubt: although the discussion had been lively, she remembered that Alice had made quite a few of the suggestions. Virginia had made some. But Sue and Tony and Jack had not said anything. And George, while nodding earnestly from time to time, also had been silent. How many others had been unresponsive?

As the discussion closed, finally, Mrs. Jackson's doubts could no longer be silenced.

"We have had a very good discussion," she said, "and many people have contributed. Or I think many people have. I wonder if you will be quite frank with me. Will all of you who participated put up your hands? I just want to know how many really took part in the discussion."

A scattering of hands went up. Mrs. Jackson quickly counted them: 13. There were 36 in the class. Two were absent. That meant that 13 out of 34 students had earned the "lively discussion." What had happened to the other 21? Were they interested? Did they agree or disagree? What did they think? Were they thinking at all?

Mrs. Jackson thanked the class and went on with the business at hand. But

she could not help feeling somewhat let down, just a bit cheated, and concerned as well. Her questions remained unanswered and disturbing.

Comparable situations could be reported in many secondary-school classes. Good discussion procedures encourage some spread in participation but they cannot typically involve all students; time is too short and classes are too large. Often, involvement of the whole class is desirable. Is it possible? In recent years considerable progress has been made in knowledge about the personal-social climate in which learning is encouraged or discouraged. The small-group setting is the best procedure to involve every individual. In this chapter, the group within the larger class will be discussed. How does one identify subgroups in a class? How can group techniques be utilized for short- or long-term purposes? The small-group activity, with its many variations, may help solve the problem posed by Mrs. Jackson and echoed by many of her colleagues.

Is a Class a Group?

The literature of education abounds with phrases such as these: "The class then decided . . .," "The class then began the next phase . . ." What do these phrases mean? The usual class in the junior or senior high school contains about 33 students. Most classes are together for 50-minute periods; then the students are reshuffled as they proceed to the next class period. Another 33 students, including some new faces from another class, then convene for quite different instruction. Are these classes genuine "groups"? Can a class of 33 actually "decide" anything, particularly when the "meeting time" is so short?

Emphasis in the standard classroom is put upon individuals competing with other individuals. Some students, who know they will succeed, have a head start and are active participants; others, who think they will fail, may already have "dropped-out" symbolically by not participating or learning. These students are being educationally cheated through no will of their own, but because of inappropriate pedagogical procedures.

On the other hand, within a genuine group, each person feels that he has a significant place and that his presence and participation are needed and utilized. An athletic team is the best example of the kind of group in which each player works toward team goals and team achievement. To refuse to participate would mean automatic exclusion from the team; therefore, everyone does participate in the position or role which his talents have earned for him.

Can a typical collection of students in a standard secondary school become this kind of group? One of the most effective procedures a teacher can utilize to develop this unity is also one of the easiest to implement: the power of the small group for achieving involvement in the task at hand.

Procedures for using small groups are easy because elaborate planning is not demanded; using small groups requires:

- No special expenditure of funds
- No special equipment

No permission (usually)
No special teacher talent

Unfortunately, teachers do not usually utilize group-work procedures in their classrooms. Why is this so? Frequent comments made by teachers for explaining why group methods are not being used are:

"Students misbehave when in groups; they gossip instead of working."

"The other teachers complain of the noise."

"The principal won't let me because he says it is too noisy" (or chaotic looking).

"I tried it once and it didn't work at all."

"The students don't like it; they prefer lectures because they know they are 'covering' the material."

"The teacher who has the room the period after mine wants the chairs all in rows, so I can't place them in small circles for groups."

"I've never done it."

"It's inappropriate to my subject."

"It sounds too much like progressive education."

Some of the comments have some validity; noise that bothers other teachers has to be considered. A principal who objects needs educating. But the other objections are rationalizations. The students can put the seats back in rows at the end of the period if the next teacher requires it! Because group work failed once, is not evidence that it does not work at all.

Group Work Helps Learning

A number of studies have explored the efficiency of group learning.¹ Some of the most striking effects of group membership on behavior are reported in the literature on group therapy. Alcoholics Anonymous is one familiar example of the principle that group membership can help individuals where isolation and punitive, or even medical, treatment will not.

In adolescence the role of the peer group has tremendous significance, perhaps more significance than at any other period in life.

The adolescent growing up in the slum has been educated more effectively by the other children and youth he grew up with than by members of his own family. The autobiography, *Manchild in the Promised Land*² is a dramatic affirmation of this fact.

¹ Marjorie E. Shaw, "A Comparison of Individuals and Small Groups in the Rational Solution of Complex Problems." In *Readings in Social Psychology*, T. M. Newcomb, and E. L. Hartley (eds.) New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1947, pp. 314-315. See also Ralph K. White, and Ronald O. Lippitt, *Autocracy and Democracy*. New York: Harper & Row, Publishers, 1960, and Kurt Lewin, "Studies in Group Decision." In *Group Dynamics, Research and Theory*, Dorwin Cartwright, and Alvin Zander (eds.). Evanston, Illinois: Row, Peterson & Company, 1953, pp. 287-291. See also references in recommended reading.

² Claude Brown, *Manchild in the Promised Land*. New York: Crowell-Collier and Macmillan, Inc., 1965.

Realizing, then, this impact of the peer group enables teachers to influence the kind of group life that the adolescent will experience. Instead of bewailing the undesirable activities of "gangs," the snobbery and insulation of cliques, the pain of individuals being left out, a teacher can directly influence the patterns of adolescent peer groups.

The youth who is outside the group, outside society, may try to hit back. The teacher can assist these "peripheral" adolescents in finding a place where they belong, where they are needed, and where their contributions are valued and respected.

Typically, in today's culture, boy meets girl for serious discussion only under the most exceptional circumstances. The contact is usually restricted to a few undercover words in class, a brief conversation in the hall, or the bantering chitchat at the soda fountain. Instead of criticizing the lack of significant ties binding husband and wife or the readiness with which young people contemplate divorce today, perhaps teaching practices should be examined to see whether some fault might not lie there. School itself may have made it very difficult indeed for boys and girls to talk normally together about important things.

But what is life like in many classrooms? Each student is a separate island. Little real interchange is permitted, although much goes on that is surreptitious. Students learn together the same material, some lagging far behind, others impatiently surging ahead of the rest. This uniformity of procedure has earned many secondary schools the condemnation of teaching mediocrity. One contribution of "group" learning is that it meets the intellectual, social, and emotional needs of the great variety of personalities present in every classroom.

Where Do You Begin with Group Work?

A teacher who wishes to use small groups in his class gains security if he, himself, has recent experience with group activities. In the succeeding sections of this chapter different kinds of group activities will be described; you and your fellow teachers-to-be might select several and try them out.

As a demonstration, in one teacher-education class, a student decided to use small groups to gather student opinion about an issue facing the University student government association at the time. The issue concerned the right of a student publication to publish without faculty censorship. The student leading the class said, "All right, we all know there is a lot of talk on campus about whether there should be censorship or not. Get into groups of no more than five—and don't be in a group with your best friends or people you know—and get a summary of the feelings of the group. I will give you 10 minutes for this." The class shuffled around. How does one find such a group? There was great confusion, and most of the allotted 10 minutes went by with many students not attached to any groups, and with only a few groups tackling the problem with real enthusiasm. What went wrong? When the 10 minutes were up, instead of reporting their feelings about censorship, the class, with

the assistance of the instructor went step by step over the procedures the student had used to organize the group activity. Although he had made almost every mistake in the book, both the student-leader and the other potential teachers in the group learned a great deal from the exercise. The "guts" of small group work were visible; they had actually been inside the situation, and could see some of the problems and possibilities.

When using group procedures with adolescents, it is reassuring to know that many of them are already well versed in this way of working. In many elementary classrooms there is frequent committee work of various kinds. Many youngsters have belonged to Boy or Girl Scouts, YMCA or YWCA, or other youth groups. The 4-H Clubs are reaching out to more and more rural, and also urban, young people. Adolescents may already have acquired many group skills and have gained experience with group work. Consequently you should not assume that adolescents, in junior or senior high school, are incapable of group action. Even those who have had a minimum of exposure to groups—or none at all—can soon learn to work adequately in small groups.

There are two commonly used ways of starting group work in a classroom. One method is to develop several small committees to assist in administering the classroom. Such committees, for example, can supervise the supply room for a chemistry class. Committees can regulate the distribution of paper in a typing class. Bulletin board committees can keep current-events corners up to date in social studies classes. A second method is to start a class with a number of short-term groups, sometimes called "buzz" groups, whose purpose is to canvass opinion or make suggestions for class plans in a minimum of time with a maximum of participation.

Which approach to use depends in large measure on the confidence of the teacher himself. A teacher who has little familiarity with group activity might start with the committee system, since it is most nearly a logical outgrowth of other kinds of club and youth-group activities.

The physical arrangement of some classrooms and the content of some subject-matter areas, lend themselves more easily to one type of group activity than to another. But, with experience, most teachers can successfully employ many kinds of groups.

One warning: beginning teachers sometimes consider it appropriate to ask the students themselves whether they would like to use group procedures for doing their work. It is certainly part of good student-teacher planning to permit choices among approaches to learning. However, to ask a group of students, "Do you want to try buzz groups now?" when the class has no idea of the nature of a buzz group, is to ask them to render judgment from ignorance.

A better way to begin is to follow the natural sequence of unit development. When the class is at the point where decisions are needed about what problems should be studied in the unit, buzz groups can be initiated. Instead of having youngsters try to reach agreement, the teacher can say, "We want to get everyone's opinion on what problems we ought to cover in this unit. I will

put you in small groups of five, for about 5 minutes. If we all put our heads together, we ought to be able to make better choices." Meeting places in the classroom are then designated. Leaders, for this first time, are appointed. And group work begins.

Short-term Groups

Short-term, or buzz, groups, which are typically used to attack specific jobs, are limited in scope. The tasks can usually be completed in a short period of time—from 5 to 20 minutes. Good preplanning enhances the probability of success of buzz groups, with all the accompanying bonus of improved morale.

Deciding on the problem for the groups to discuss. The task of the buzz group must be clearly defined in the mind of the teacher and fully recognized by the groups. Typically, buzz groups are useful for getting a quick reaction to a controversial issue, for planning the next steps in a unit, for assessing the relative importance of proposed topics of study, and for setting up rules or regulations for class activities or materials.

Choosing the strategic moment to initiate the buzz group. A buzz group may serve to organize a discussion and extend the involvement of the class. For example, a group might be engaged in a heated discussion about athletic policies. It would soon be discovered that not everyone could express his opinion. At this time the teacher could set up buzz groups so that all students could speak their minds on the topic. Such a buzz-group session would occur, then, midway through a discussion period. Buzz groups may also be used to warm up a class for general discussion. Still others may be used to bring together and organize ideas expressed at the end of a discussion or study period.

Determining how the buzz groups will be chosen. The several ways of choosing buzz groups are important enough to require a separate discussion. For the moment, let us say that the method of choosing will be based on which kind of group composition will "jell" fastest and still suit the purpose. The buzz group will usually number about five persons, though any number from three to six can "buzz" effectively. A group that is too small has too few resources to call upon; a group that is too large lets some members take a silent role or become disruptive when not involved.

Setting the time limits. Time is the most effective discipline for keeping lively adolescents focused on the problem to be solved. The time allowed should be as short as possible while still allowing members to explore the topic. It is always better to allow too little time than too much.

It does take experience to determine how long adolescents can talk about something productively before the discussion degenerates into horseplay. If the teacher underestimates the time, he can let the students know that, since the task has not yet been accomplished, they can have another 3 or 4 minutes to finish. Or, if some groups finish sooner than expected, he can call time on them all. The students will not be watching the clock if the problem is both real and absorbing.

Establishing group organization. Only a chairman and a recorder or reporter are needed for organizing each group. But how will they be chosen? Sometimes the teacher can select them ahead of time on the basis of known qualities of leadership or knowledge of the field. Sometimes the tasks can be used to bring in students who do not usually participate. It is often good policy to use very arbitrary means: "The person whose name is nearest the top of the alphabet will be chairman; the person whose name is nearest the bottom of the alphabet will be recorder." If the group members are strangers to one another, such a procedure means that they have to introduce themselves by name. And it makes retreat from the assigned role difficult.

Giving the group its leadership rather than allowing the group to choose its own is useful particularly if the class is unfamiliar with group work. Later, the roles will be assumed rather naturally. But at the beginning, structuring the group helps get work under way quickly. In long-term groups the selection of leadership is vital; in short-term groups it is less important.

Arranging for group reports. Usually the appointed reporter will tell the rest of the class what was decided in his group. These decisions may be listed on the board; they may be the basis for further discussion by the whole class; or the reporters may be asked to form a group to summarize all the findings. If the reports are brief and to the point, it is ordinarily useful for each group to hear and see its own report presented to the total class. Then a certain pride of ownership encourages the youngsters to want to engage in this kind of activity again. The involvement of each person in "his" group's report is assured as each reporter tells what the group accomplished.

Ways of Choosing Members of Buzz Groups

The method of choosing members for buzz groups must be simple and easily executed. The groups are too temporary to justify elaborate selection procedures. Several illustrations of feasible methods are given below.

Groupings may be based on the established seating pattern. Instead of moving students around, the teacher can designate the five students sitting nearest to one another as constituting a group. However, to avoid confusion, the teacher will want to go around the room, pointing out specifically the groups he wishes to be formed. If the seats are in rows, he may group students either horizontally across the room or vertically from front to back.

Prearranged groupings may be developed. Any one of these factors can be used to divide the class: (1) An alphabetical listing of the students; (2) a sociometric test (see p. 206); (3) talents, backgrounds, or interests—these may be used to set up homogeneous or heterogeneous groups; (4) articulateness and information—students possessing these may be distributed among the groups in order to give them support and help.

When prearranged groupings are used, duplicated lists, with a copy for each student, facilitate rapid organization. At the time the groups are designated, a number should be given to each for purposes of easy identification. A rough

sketch on the chalkboard may be used to show where in the classroom each group will meet. Then it is easy for students to move into their buzz groups without confusion. The lists of group members should not be distributed until the moment arrives for the groups to convene, because the listing provides a very tempting occasion for comment (either aloud or undercover) about who is in what group, and with whom!

Instead of duplicating the list, the teacher may put it on the chalkboard before class and pull a map or chart over it until the list is needed. Reading the list aloud is generally unsatisfactory. Students forget their group assignments; reactions to the names of those grouped together may be loud and prolonged; and, invariably, at least one student just doesn't hear his name.

A counting-off device is sometimes useful. Some classes are seated according to their own wishes. Friends sit near friends. When the teacher seeks to widen the circles of acquaintance, counting-off effects a thorough reshuffling. And besides, it's fun. Starting in one corner of the room, the first student is number 1, the next is 2, and so on. The final number is determined by the size of the class. If there are thirty-five students, and groups of five are wanted, the numbering continues through to 7 and then starts over again. This gives seven groups of five members each. All the ones are in the first group; the twos in the second group, and so on.

Numbered cards can be made ahead of time. These cards contain the buzz-group numbers. If there are to be seven groups of five members each, there will be five cards with the number 1 on them, five with 2, and so on to number 7. These can be shuffled and passed out at random by student monitors. The number received designates the student's buzz group. There is some danger that students will trade cards clandestinely with each other in order to get into a particular group. This may be halted by an admonition from the teacher to keep the card one is given; or the teacher may choose to ignore it if it is not widespread enough to defeat the purpose of the procedure. When the groups have been organized, the numbered cards may be collected and used again another time.

Whatever device is used for setting up buzz groups, the important thing is to do it speedily.

To facilitate speed in setting up groups, particularly if students are to move from their regular seats, the teachers should warn them: "Gather all your movable belongings because you are soon going to be sitting someplace else." In some classes, it may be quite permissible to leave all one's possessions (books, purses, notebooks) in one's regular seat. However, wherever there would be any question about stealing or loss of any item, the students should always have the warning ahead of time that they can take their "stuff" with them. Without such a warning, there is apt to be a mad scramble to collect belongings that are on the desk, in the desk, on the floor, in the shelf under the seat; even these few moments of chaos are wasteful, and preventable.

Observation of adolescents quickly reveals that disorder and disturbance in classrooms occur when there is nothing to do. Whenever seats are to be moved

or rearranged, there is an opportunity for someone to wander off on his private pursuits. Quick and efficient transitions from general discussion into buzz groups lessen the likelihood of disturbance. Of course, if the students are genuinely interested in what the groups are going to do, that motivation alone will get them into their groups quickly.

Ways of Using Buzz Groups

A substitute teacher was faced with a class of seniors who had been studying some of the problems of vocational selection. Although the substitute was entirely new to the class, and the class to him, he felt that anything would be better than the usual teacher-student battle that goes on when a substitute comes in. So he took the class by surprise. He asked them to shift their chairs into groups of five, and to list as a group some of the problems they felt they would face when they entered the world of work after June. The class took up the discussion with vigor; and, when the time was up, a provocative list of problems had been put on the board. The class was led into a discussion of "Which problem is most important now?" and then, "Which problems can we do something about ourselves, and which can we get help on from the school?" Next day, when the substitute returned, the class demanded another buzz session.

The buzz-group technique, as we have outlined it, has a host of uses. Early in the term buzz groups may discuss questions they would like to have answered in the course. Sometimes, when students have few questions regarding the course, the teacher may outline the variety of possible topics to be covered. This list should include more topics than can be taught. The problem for the groups then is to select those they would like to study. This device gives the students a chance to think critically about the course work ahead, gives them a feeling of proprietorship in the course work to be covered, and also provides an opportunity for them to meet others in the class early in the semester.

Another use for the short-term group is in working out routine problems or exercises together. For example, students may spend part of a period selecting from a list the sentences they consider most "vivid." Or they may grade the quality of a set of anonymous compositions, a procedure that gives them significant practice in critical judgment. The same sort of group situation is useful for judging various musical compositions, artistic productions, lettering charts, floor plans, breakfast menus, recreation habits, propaganda slogans, and the like. One teacher allowed students in groups to correct their examinations together. Where morale is high and competition for grades has been de-emphasized, this procedure minimizes the chance and the need to cheat or fabricate. It also provides all the students an opportunity to learn the right answer, not just to find out theirs was wrong.

Short-term group activity may be devoted to the group game. This is particularly useful in those classes where a certain amount of drill is needed. The

imaginative teacher can devise simple games that small groups can play while the rest of the class is engaged in other activities. Or, the whole class may play them together in small groups. This latter method ensures a maximum of practice for all, not merely for the most apt or the most backward. It also makes routine drills somewhat more palatable. The new classroom-learning games (see p. 244) that are becoming increasingly popular in innovative classrooms almost invariably depend on some kind of small group or team for decision making.

Buzz groups may be used to react to problem situations posed by such devices as the "Focus" pictures on moral dilemmas of youth published by the National Conference of Christians and Jews.³ A teacher may develop his own set of pictures for such a purpose, or the problem situations may be presented to the groups in written form.

In a graduate class in human relations for classroom teachers, anecdotes were written by various class members about situations of particular concern to them in the human-relations area. The following is an example of the kind of problem that was used for buzz-group consideration:

I was talking with friends the other day about school. One of them had a son in my school. I know the boy, although I had not had him in class. He was an average student as far as I knew.

His mother said to me, "You know, I don't think Johnny is doing too well with Mrs. Jones. I don't know what to do about it. Frankly, I'm afraid to go and ask. She'll probably think I've come to complain. And maybe she will take it out on Johnny. He's doing poorly enough already, so you can see why I'm afraid."

I said, "Are you sure Mrs. Jones would act that way?"

"Well, no," Johnny's mother answered. "I'm not sure at all. But how can I afford to take the chance? Would you if you were I?"

I didn't know how to reply.

Some of the newer films that are designed specifically for discussion purposes furnish an excellent springboard for buzz-group discussion.⁴ Since the films are provocative, the interest of adolescents is assured. They want to talk about the problem presented! Let them talk. But instead of restricting discussion to the five or ten who will be determined to express their opinions in the available time, set up buzz groups in which everyone gets a chance to talk. And they will!

The Long-term Group

The buzz group serves the class for temporary and immediate assistance. The long-term group is a more permanent working party, which may retain the

³ Focus on Problems Facing Youth. New York: National Conference of Christians and Jews.

⁴ Suggested open-ended films for discussion can be found in Jean Dresden Grambs, *Inter-group Education: Methods and Materials*. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1963, Part II "Films."

same membership for several days or weeks. The kinds of problems attacked, the methods by which group members are chosen, the organization within the groups, and the outcomes of group effort differ from the short-term group because of this continuing membership.

The problems attacked represent relatively large divisions of the work of the class for the semester or the year. If a group is to serve very long, its efforts must be directed toward important problems. After all, a class continues only for some 18 weeks or less during a semester. No one can countenance devoting any considerable number of periods to this kind of group work unless the purposes served are significant to the goals of instruction and the content of the course.

In an English class the central problem might be "Developing a Personal Philosophy," with selections from the literature of various countries being appraised by different groups. "Water and How We Use It" might focus the work of several groups in a general science class. The omnipresent task of "Selecting a Vocation" might be investigated by groups in social studies. "The Uses of Geometry" might combine group work with a community survey.

Obviously, even more than with buzz groups, meticulous preplanning is crucial. The teacher must first think through the facets of the problem and second guide his class to plan:

- Feasible dimensions for the project
- Equitable division of labor
- Accessible resources and materials for study
- Explicit goals of immediate appeal and lasting significance

Since the problems attacked by long-term groups are of some scope and depth, they have many facets to be investigated. Long-term groups, therefore, can undertake more differentiated and specialized jobs than buzz groups. A business education class, for example, might set up its groups according to the divisions of a large office and work through a problem in office management. Because of the longer time period allowed, work that demands a fair amount of skill and coordinated team effort can be attempted with these groups, such projects are not feasible with buzz groups.

At the same time, the work of the group can be better adjusted to the group members. This adjustment may be based on criteria of interest, ability, background, social relationships, or any other important common element or difference among the students. It is worthwhile to investigate these factors in detail and to weigh the composition of groups with great care when the teacher knows that the grouping will last for some time. Buzz groups do not justify such exacting analysis.

Interest Groups

A world history class was studying Egypt. The students became interested in the kind of schools that children went to in ancient times and expressed

interest in various phases of the subject. The teacher listed on the board some of the things they suggested that might be worth investigating: what the students wore to school; what subjects they studied; what a typical school looked like; what kinds of children went to school. Some were interested in whether there were special kinds of schools for the nobility; whether there were separate schools for boys and girls; whether those schools were better or worse than contemporary ones. The students were asked to indicate which topic interested them most. The teacher pointed out that some topics might be illustrated by models or drawings and that some might be dramatically portrayed to the class. One or two topics demanded research in the main town library, since they were obscure.

As he looked over the names of the students who had signed up for the various topics, the teacher could easily see how the natural interests of the students had determined the group they chose. Johnny, who liked to carve wood and was interested in very little else, had chosen to work on what a typical school looked like. Polly, who designed her own dresses, chose the group on clothing. Tom, with the high IQ, chose the topic of the subjects studied in ancient schools, which might require work at the main library—where he practically lived anyway. And so on around the class.

Ability Groups

The senior English class was very much concerned about passing the English entrance examinations for the state university. Much emphasis was therefore being placed on gaining competence in grammatical usage, reading comprehension, and facility in composition. The teacher gave the class several achievement tests in English and clearly saw the major weaknesses of each student in these three areas. He suggested to the class that he might arrange groups for them in which they could work together on these weaknesses. The class accepted the idea, and it was agreed that Tuesday and Thursday would be the days when the "problem" groups, as they were to be called, would meet together. Workbooks and special exercises would be provided by the teacher. The other days of the week would be devoted to regular class instruction.

After this plan had been operating for several weeks, the students suggested a revision. It was clear that some students were very good in one area where others were weak. It was also clear that the teacher could not get around to all the groups each period to work with them on their problems. They asked whether every other time one of the better students might be assigned to the groups as a sort of teacher's aide. This meant that a number of the students did not meet with their own groups, but worked as experts with slower or less adept students. Then the situation would be reversed; a student who was skillful in grammar might be poor in reading or in understanding poetry; he would then be given assistance by another student.

As the semester progressed, many shifts in groupings occurred. The teacher kept a record of the problem groups and their membership; he also noted those

students who acted as teacher's aides. He found that almost every student had worked on at least one aspect of each skill area, and, in addition, all but five students had been able to develop sufficient proficiency in some special topic to be asked to work with a given group for one or more periods.

Groups Based on Background

A biology class was studying communicable diseases. A question arose about which parts of town were the most sanitary. The students at this union high school came from over half the county. By a show of hands, it was found that most of the students fell into natural groupings according to their home addresses. A map of the school district was obtained from the principal, and rough districts were drawn. All those living in a given district agreed to explore sanitation conditions in their section. By planning with the students, the teacher was able to set up five groups of 4 to 6 members for each section of the map. The groups were then given the remainder of the hour to list the things they thought they should look for. The next day, each group submitted its list. A master list was then compiled. The teacher suggested further reading in the text and some additional references so that the students would know how to recognize danger areas. Thus a group project was launched.

Groups Based on Social Relationships

A second-year Spanish class planned a fiesta for a "Back-to-School Night," on which parents visited various classes. Each student was asked to name three students with whom he would like to work. Miss Esperanza discovered some facts about her class that she had never suspected. Albert was widely chosen, whereas she had believed he had few friends. Deborah was selected by only one girl, and she had been certain that everyone liked her. The only two Spanish-American girls in the class did not indicate each other as preferred workmates. Henry, easily her worst student and certainly the most irritating, was chosen more widely than any other person in the class.

As a result of these discoveries, Miss Esperanza had some doubts about the wisdom of student selection, but she decided to balance the groups to the best of her ability. Some of those who were widely accepted she placed with others rarely chosen. It was Miss Esperanza's first attempt to use this means of forming groups; and she soon found that she had made some mistakes, but within a week, with some judicious shifting, the groups functioned surprisingly well.

Advance scheduling of the work of long-term groups is mandatory if a secure sense of progress is to be maintained. Each group should know where it is to be each day (classroom, library, or other location), what it is to be doing (discussing, researching, and so forth), which materials and supplies are required (periodicals, pamphlets, and the like), when tasks are to be completed (day, week, and so forth), who has the several responsibilities (typing, illustrating,

and similar tasks). It is usually good strategy to place on a bulletin board a summary of the essential elements of scheduling.

Almost all students need their time sense sharpened. Before they know it, deadlines are upon them. Group morale deteriorates and the project collapses. A few minutes spent regularly in review of group progress, with specific discussion of what remains to be done, prevents these catastrophes.

The roles of group members tend to become more sharply defined during these periodic appraisals. The leader chosen initially may be replaced. This will be true whether he is teacher-designated or group-chosen. The most intellectually able sometimes is not accepted by fellow group members. On the other hand, the most popular may allow the group's work to become confused. In any case, it is wise to insist from the beginning that leadership be rotated.

The teacher will want to help the groups realize that different members may make good leaders for different kinds of work. Some are good preplanners and assigners of responsibility. Others are good expeditors. Still others are fine compilers of final reports and summarizers of group opinion.

Sometimes it is feasible to run brief leadership clinics to show group leaders just what responsibilities their job entails. Problems encountered by the different groups can be discussed, and next steps proposed by the several leaders.

Evaluating Group Outcomes

The effectiveness of the group as a group is at least as important as the products of its efforts. The group should become conscious of what helps it to operate well and what obstructs its functioning. This means a good hard look at both individual members and the group as a whole.

It will require some practice before students can look at themselves with any degree of objectivity. Discussion has to be focused on what was done to help or hinder, rather than on who did it. The list of do's and don't's will grow gradually. One class developed this list:

HELPS	HINDERS
Willing to work	Ducks responsibility
Willing to try something else	Wants to play it safe
Cheerful and helpful	Cross and selfish
Has a sense of humor	Always expecting the worst
Suggests another way when people disagree	Insists on having his own way
Wants to do things well	Likes to find the easy way out
Gets things done on time	Has a lot of excuses

Each class should develop its own list. Some classes have found it worthwhile to make posters generously decorated with caricatures of the various group roles. With a little help, the groups themselves can use these guides to recognize group members' strengths and weaknesses.

Evaluation Procedures

Groups are sustained in their efforts when they have specific guides for appraisal. Several are described below as illustrations of types classes will wish to devise for themselves.

At the end of a period, when the groups have been meeting for some time, the teacher may use a very simple form in order to get a quick check on group members' satisfaction with their meeting:

HOW GOOD WAS OUR MEETING?

Name (or group number or group topic) _____

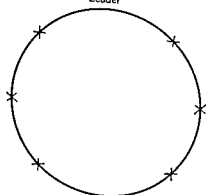
1. Check the line below at the point which bests indicates your feeling about your group meeting:

Very Good Good All Right Not Very Good No Good

2. What was the best thing about the meeting?
3. What was the main weakness of the meeting?
4. Comments and suggestions.

Records of group participation may be filled in either by the teacher as he observes the groups or by a member of the group. An example of a form that may be used is given below. This will help the teacher, as well as the group, see to what extent certain individuals are doing either too much or too little. Various kinds of observational forms may be devised by the class itself for special purposes.

GROUP-PARTICIPATION FORM
Leader



The names of group members are written around the circle. Whenever a person makes a contribution, his name is checked. The group-participation pattern may be recorded in any one of three different ways:

Quantity participation record: A tally mark is recorded after each person's name every time he makes a contribution. This gives a sum of contributions.

Quality participation record: As each person makes his contribution, an evaluative mark is put after his name. These marks are:

Plus = a contribution that aids group thinking.

Minus = a contribution that delays or interferes with group progress in thinking.

Zero = a remark that neither aids nor hinders: a "blah" remark.

? = individual asks a question.

In using this scoring method, it is often difficult for observers to put down many minus marks, since it is likely to hurt the feelings of those evaluated. However, if the discussion about the scoring is objective, and everyone sees that a minus score may mean simply lack of skill in group participation, then the negative factors may be recorded without damage to morale.

Group interaction record: An arrow is used to join the names of individuals whenever they talk to one another. When an individual addresses a remark to the group as a whole, the arrow should point out toward the edge of the paper. The pattern recorded is apt to be very interesting; and it is possible to note how the leader or chairman is leading the discussion, or whether two people are carrying on a personal argument.

Use of Group Observers

It may be helpful to use group observers in evaluation, assigning one student to each group. These observers can then report to the whole class on how well the group was able to work together. The role of the observer provides excellent training; and the task of observing often helps students who have particular difficulty in working with a group.

Use of Group Recorders

The function of the group recorder may be to report the group's progress both to the group and to the teacher or class. The recorder is more than a secretary and should be an assigned role for boys as well as girls. The recorder helps the group to think toward its goal. The leader of the group can help balance the discussion and include those who are least verbal, while the recorder asks such questions as, "Now what is the issue we are discussing? . . . Is this an accurate statement of what we decided to do? . . . I am not sure that we covered the point raised by John a while back regarding. . . ." From the record made in this fashion, the teacher as well as the group has a sense of where it is going, and how.

Methods of Appraising Individual Participation

Often the class, as well as the teacher, may be dissatisfied with giving a whole group the same grade for the group report or group product, whatever

that may be. As a method of helping to assess the individual efforts, the teacher may ask the members of the group to evaluate one another. Each may also evaluate his own progress. A form similar to the one below may be used.

Members of the Group	Effort	Leadership	Quality of Work	Cooperation
1.				
2.				
3.				
4.				
5.				

DIRECTIONS: In the spaces after each name, put a letter grade to indicate how well, in your opinion, each member of your group demonstrated the particular item listed. Include a grade for yourself in each category.

Invitations to self-evaluation help some students to face up to their responsibilities. They can be phrased quite directly:

I do my part of the group's work.

I get my work done on time.

I accept leadership seriously.

I offer any ideas I have.

I assist others.

The teacher will find it very useful to develop such a rating form with the assistance of the entire class. When the students aid in building such evaluative tools, they are learning some very important social skills. In addition, they are learning to discriminate among ideas, to establish values regarding interpersonal behavior, and to view behavior—their own and that of others—objectively. It is easier for students in the class to fill in such a rating form intelligently if the items and the form itself have been phrased and designed by them.

Reporting on the Group Project

While some long-term groups will not need to report to the rest of the class, others should share with their classmates the results of their research. Experience with group reports has been gratifying wherever the groups have been encouraged to try new ways of educating their classmates. The following steps should be taken with the class prior to group reporting:

Set a deadline for groups to report. Some groups may report earlier than others, or all groups may be asked to be ready for reporting by a certain date. This date may be shifted forward or backward depending on the progress of the groups in obtaining the needed information or performing the assigned tasks.

Agree on the function of the group report. If the report is to inform, then the group must emphasize facts; must seek ways of discriminating between important and unimportant facts; must find media for presenting factual material so that all can see it at once—such as graphs, charts, slides. If the report is to stimulate discussion, then a panel, a debate, a dramatic introduction of some sort is required.

Discuss what it means to educate others. The class will need very often to analyze the difference between that which is educational and that which is merely novel, entertaining, or startling. Turn the thinking of the class upon what their classmates need and want to know.

Encourage originality. Point out the poor effects of a dull, boring, and confused presentation. Suggest some things that groups can do to enliven their report and attract the interest of the class.

Some tenth-grade students who were reporting on their vocational choice, elementary school teaching, recognized that they were shy and fearful about facing their classmates. They therefore borrowed the school tape recorder and, in the privacy of a quiet room, merely conversed about their findings. The next day in class the recorded report had a freshness and vitality that pleased everyone.

Review the material on good oral reporting. Since the success of many group reports will depend on the skill of the members in oral presentation, some class discussion of oral report forms is very useful.

Arrange for responsibility for evaluating the information contained in the report. It should be clear just what the class audience will be asked to recall as a result of the presentation. The teacher may announce that the group will make up exam questions on the basis of its reports, that he will himself take this responsibility, or that designated members of the class will be asked to make up questions for a later quiz. Or, the class may be directed to take notes on the presentation, or to summarize the main points presented by the group. This is a vital aspect of assuring class attention to the report, but the teacher will want to be careful not to make the audience so anxious about every minor fact that it interferes with communication.

Designate clearly the teacher's role during the group report. Sometimes the teacher may request a few moments at the end of the report to add or summarize or emphasize some point the group may have overlooked. Or he may want to give a brief evaluation of the report. Once in a while a discussion is so lively or a report is so amusing that the class gets somewhat out of hand; then the teacher should step in. If a group member freezes completely with stage fright,

EVALUATION SHEET FOR INDIVIDUAL OR GROUP REPORT TO CLASS

DELIVERY

- | | |
|---|---|
| <input type="checkbox"/> Too formal | <input type="checkbox"/> Relaxed; at ease |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Rambling | <input type="checkbox"/> Well-organized |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Read from notes | <input type="checkbox"/> Put in own words |
| <input type="checkbox"/> No visual aids | <input type="checkbox"/> Used appropriate visual aids |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Insufficient detail | <input type="checkbox"/> Sufficient detail; used examples |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Eye contact poor | <input type="checkbox"/> Good eye contact |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Uninterested in subject | <input type="checkbox"/> Enthusiastic, interested |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Poor posture | <input type="checkbox"/> Good posture |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Didn't ask for questions | <input type="checkbox"/> Asked for questions |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Too informal; disorganized | |

INFORMATIONAL CONTENT

- | | |
|--|--|
| <input type="checkbox"/> Few sources used | <input type="checkbox"/> Variety of sources used |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Errors in information | <input type="checkbox"/> Information sound |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Needs more research | <input type="checkbox"/> Good research |

TOTAL EVALUATION

Generally poor	Fair	Good	Excellent
----------------	------	------	-----------

the teacher may want to come to his rescue rather than leaving it up to a chairman.

Remember that it is not always necessary for a group to report directly to the class. Sometimes too much class time is taken for student reports. The group report should be a significant activity, and each report must be carefully worked out. Sometimes using bulletin board displays or circulating a written report is a satisfactory substitute for the oral report. Too frequent group reports can become monotonous and may be as inefficient as too few.

The Hazards of Group Work

As all teachers know, the best-made plans for an exciting instructional period can evaporate like so much fog in a hot sun. A fine plan may not work because the students just cannot be stimulated to effort. At other times, students wade into a project with the best will in the world but soon flounder and bog down.

Group work, with its considerable stress on initiative and independence, enjoys its share of success and failure. Some of the mistakes that make failure more likely are listed below.

Starting a group or committee project without preparation of the class by the teacher. What is the group to do? Who is to do it? How are leaders to be chosen? What is the responsibility of group members? These and similar questions should be explored early and fully.

Setting up a research job but failing to provide materials for the groups or having insufficient materials so that many are idle while a few do the work.

Confusing individual goals with group goals. Because students are so used to individual grades and individual work situations, it is often difficult for them to learn how to be responsible and cooperative group members. The teacher must assess the level of group skills of the entire class as well as of individual students in order to provide needed guidance along the way. The problem chosen for group work should be one that requires or rewards group effort, rather than a problem that could more easily be done alone.

Making projects either too complicated or too simple for the time available. If the project cannot be accomplished, a group will soon give up the task. If the problem is so easy that it can be solved in far less time than provided, then members are going to find something else to occupy their time—and harass the teacher.

Putting the wrong people together. Sometimes certain combinations of students are explosive. The teacher should always announce to the class, particularly when setting up long-term groups, that, if necessary, members may be shifted around. The use of sociometric procedures, described later, help establish good group "mixes." The next section of this chapter will provide procedures to help the teacher identify appropriate groupings.

The Teacher Learns, Too

It is a truism of education that the closer a teacher can get to knowing each student as a person, the better he will be able to provide an education for that student. One of the special dividends of group work is the large fund of observations about learning needs and potentials that the teacher accumulates. Susie surprises you by coming up with good compromises. Loudmouthed Jack injects a needed bit of humor when discussion verges on argument. Joe is particularly sensitive to those who have not yet had a chance to say anything. Nancy is so intent on hard work that she drives the other members of the group too hard.

When groups are effectively at work, the teacher does not settle back at his desk with a sigh of relief for a needed rest. Rather, this is a rare opportunity to see his students whole. Many teachers have come to a new appreciation of some students by observing the adequacy with which they can operate with their peers. These may be the same students who try and often succeed in making life miserable for teachers. The role of the teacher is to provide support, to give a word of advice where needed, to assist when a real impasse is reached, to challenge a group that gets a solution too easily, and to suggest other alternatives the group has not considered. But equally significant, the teacher has a chance to observe and become acquainted with all his students.

Analyzing Class Groupings

To be successful, group-work procedures may depend on a careful analysis of the subgroups already existing, or the groups may be of such short duration that it does not really matter who works with whom. However, whether the

teacher uses groups for extended study purposes, or for only short buzz-group sessions, it is valuable to have insight into the network of interpersonal relationships that exist. Some group work situations, whether of short or long duration, do not succeed because the teacher has put the wrong "mix" of students together.

Some classrooms seem to have a good atmosphere, others do not.

A student teacher was struggling with a difficult eighth-grade class. Few things he tried met with much success. They were sullen, antagonistic, refused to do homework, and did a minimum in class. It was suggested that perhaps group work might be tried. The supervising teacher, who often used group work herself, said that it would probably not work with this class. She explained that the class members literally hated one another. They were a group of relatively slow learners, plus some adolescents with very difficult behavior problems. They were "block scheduled": that is, they had to take most of their classes together, although they moved from teacher to teacher. So these students, among whom such animosity existed, were forced to be together for most of their school day. No wonder group work was impossible! However, with some perseverance, the student teacher was able to identify some pairs of students who could work together, although there were some with whom no one could, or would, work. The students enjoyed working in pairs; the student teacher finally overcame their antagonism; and most of these class members eventually were able to increase their achievement, as well as to gain more success in learning.

In addition to being hindered by inadequate class groupings, teachers are often puzzled to observe that some students appear to "fit in" while others do not.

When Tony entered the eleventh-grade physical education class in the middle of November, the teacher, Mr. Papadaro, observed that the other boys didn't seem at all interested in him. Often, when a new boy came, the other students came around, chatting about where he had come from, giving him a few helpful hints about the school. But Tony was ignored. On the surface he seemed like any other kid: average height, regular features. But he was quiet, almost sullen. Sitting behind him on the bench, Mr. Papadaro saw Bill come up and sit next to Tony. Bill didn't say anything, just sat. Bill was another lonely boy. The other students ignored him too. Mr. Papadaro was interested to see a rather silent friendship evolve. Thereafter, Bill and Tony sat on the sidelines together, two "outsiders." Mr. Papadaro was still puzzled, though. He had no idea what it was that made these two boys seem so isolated. What did they do that made the others shy away from them, leave them alone? Mr. Papadaro tried putting each of the boys on a different team, but they still didn't mix with the others. The only playfulness he ever saw them exhibit was when the two of them tossed a ball back and forth together. Then there was much typical kidding and running commentary on each other's skill. But with the other boys, they were silent. Why?

Many teachers often feel just as puzzled as Mr. Papodoro. Here is Jane—pretty, well-dressed, nice manners—and yet no one seems to claim her as a friend; on the other hand, Jill—sloppy, not too bright, giggly—seems to be the center of a whole group of girls and boys. Thelen⁵ and his associates have studied classroom groups and have come to the conclusion that with appropriate diagnosis, “teachable” groups can be identified and students who worked well together and who worked well with a given teacher can then be placed in the same classroom situations, thus enhancing the learning of all.

A network of likes and dislikes, prejudices and tolerances, crushes and hatreds, is always present in every classroom. Two important techniques that enable the teacher to gain insight into this network of relationships in his classroom will be described here. One is the sociometric test, and the other is the “Guess Who?” test.

Sociometric Tests

As the name implies, the sociometric test measures social relationships.⁶ This device is so simple that its real significance is sometimes overlooked. Typically it consists of the following:

TEACHER: Tomorrow we had planned to set up the groups for our review of the unit we have just finished. It doesn't matter which group you are in, because we will all be doing the same thing. However, I know that students work best with those they like. So I am going to ask you to indicate on this slip of paper the three other members of this class that you would like to work with in this group.

Put a number 1 to indicate your first choice, a number 2 for your second choice, and a number 3 for your third choice.

Now, in case there is someone you would not like to work with, draw a dividing line and write the name of that person.

You probably can't all have your first choice, but I will do my best to see that you work with one or more of the persons that you have listed.

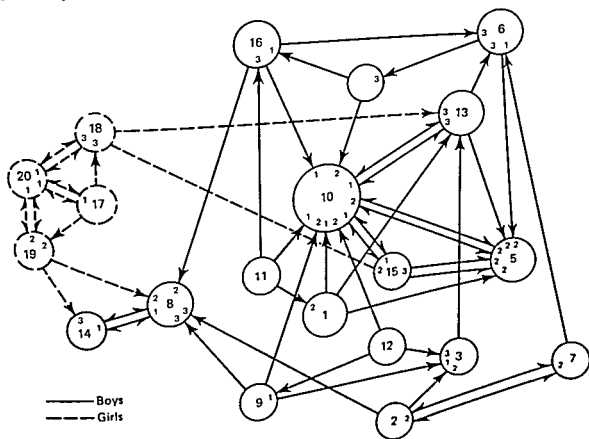
Note that the teacher wanted a work-group choice. For other situations, she might have asked for a team-mate choice, for a party-group choice, for a bus-seat companion, a fire-drill line companion, a seat partner in class, a laboratory-table partner, a problem-solving team choice, an assembly-program group choice. The choices the students will make will vary, within limits, according to the demands of the situation. For example, Elizabeth may be chosen by many students for bus-seat partner, because she is a gay and friendly girl, but be chosen rarely for work companion, because her work in class is not very good.

when all choices have been entered, adding them up gives a quick measure of relative popularity; a high score indicates an individual with first and second choices.

The rejection can be entered in red and added separately.

Analyzing a Sample Sociogram

There are several points of immediate interest in the sociogram below. First, the large numbers inside each circle refer in code to a student in the class. This helps retain anonymity of the sociogram just in case any outsider happens to see it. Second, the small numbers on the edge of the circle indicate what choice was made: a 3 means that that student was given third choice as a friend. The arrows indicate who did the choosing. A double line, with double arrow-head, indicates reciprocal choice. Third, the sociogram is drawn to indicate relative popularity; the larger the circle, the more choices, and the more first and second choices. Immediately we notice student 10, a boy who is markedly superior not only in total number of choices but also in first and second choices. Student 5 is also chosen often but all are second choices. Fourth, the cleavage between boys and girls is worthy of note. Only girls 18 and 19 chose boys. No boys chose girls. Finally, observe the strong clique pattern among both boys and girls. Boys 5, 10, and 15 have close reciprocal friendships, with 13 attached on



Sociogram for the Class of Teacher E

the fringe as a friend of 10. Among the girls, 17 is on the edge of the clique made up of 18, 19, and 20.

In any sociogram we can see all these: *direction of choice, intensity of choice, reciprocation of choice, accumulation of choice around individuals, and pattern of choices.* The class we diagramed is unusual in some ways and typical in others. Since it is a twelfth-grade physics class, we would not expect to find many girls, nor do we. All the students are college-bound, and the girls are known as "brains." The two girls chose boys with whom they had worked. Usually, in the high school, even the closest of boy-girl couples will not choose each other unless the class has had considerable group work already.

Why is boy 10 so popular? In this instance, he is the student-body president and a genuine student leader. He attracts the choices of the other students, although, again, no girl chooses him despite his high prestige. Student 8 is a foreign student, shy, with a language handicap. A girl chooses him; so do a number of others. This may be a protective role that the students are taking toward him, since he is so quiet and shy. The teacher was not aware that he had any friends.

Many students are chosen by none, or by only one person, and they are on the periphery of the class. These isolates will establish few, if any, friendship ties in a classroom unless aided by the teacher. It would be difficult for any adult to stay long in a job where no one noticed him or was interested or friendly. Yet all too often teachers ignore similar needs in students.

Before this test was given, the teacher indicated his idea of the class structure. He picked student 12 as a popular student; but 12 received no votes at all from his fellow students. The teacher felt that no student was disliked; yet student 7 was actively rejected by three students (this is not indicated on the sociogram). Handicapped by these and other errors of judgment, this teacher would have difficulty improving the social relationships in his classroom. Certainly he would have a hard time setting up work groups.⁷

A variation of the sociometric test is described by Thelen. This test provides the teacher with additional information about the intrapersonal network of the classroom. Also, by including a listing of all the students in the class there is assurance that those who are absent are included in the students' assessments. Note also that the teacher's name is included! The Thelen sociometric test is given below:

INTRODUCTORY PAGE⁸

We choose to be with different people for a variety of purposes. We may seek one person to work with and another person with whom to just chat about personal experiences and interests.

Consider each of your classmates and teacher and how you feel about them.

⁷ Sociogram and data adapted from material supplied by Dr. Fred Pinkham, Western Publishing Company, New York.

⁸ Thelen, pp. 250-251.

On the following pages you are asked to choose which ones you would prefer to work with, and which ones you would prefer to sit and chat with.

Name _____
 Period _____
 School _____

WORK

Whom would you choose to work with?

Opposite each person's name, enter the appropriate number as follows:

1. If you *really* would be very pleased to work with this person.
2. If you would like to work with this person.
3. If you would be willing to work with this person.
4. If you don't know how you feel about working with this person.
5. If you would rather not work with this person.

Robert Blumberg	_____	Ronald Fagorske	_____
Clifford Brickman	_____	Michael Graham	_____
Mr. Brunner	_____	Kathrine Kaestner	_____

Whom would you choose to sit and chat with?

Opposite each person's name enter the appropriate number:

1. If you *really* would be very pleased to sit and chat with this person.
2. If you would like to chat with this person.
3. If you would be willing to chat with this person.
4. If you don't know how you feel about chatting with this person.
5. If you would rather not chat with this person.

Robert Blumberg	_____	Ruth Mosner	_____
Clifford Brickman	_____	Susan Mulrine	_____
Mr. Brunner	_____	Bruce Nahrath	_____

Giving the Sociometric Test

It is clear that this technique is a great aid to the teacher. It is easy to administer; it does not probe further into the private worlds of the students than they are willing to reveal. As a matter of fact, students welcome the chance to choose!

In a Senior Problems class, the class had finished one project in which group choices had been based on a sociometric test. Mr. Landowsky asked the class whether they wanted to choose their group members the way they had before. The class was very enthusiastic in response, since the group experience before had been highly successful. Several students who had made no contribution before had, in a group of close friends, been able to do a very creditable job. The second time the choices were made, the teacher also had a list of topics for group projects. He asked them to indicate a choice among these and, finally, to state whether they felt more strongly about working on a given topic or working with the friends they had chosen. This gave more leeway for individual interests to assert themselves and met the different needs of the group as well.

The importance of the secret vote must be emphasized. Often, voting that is done in class is by show of hands; students see whom others choose and are swayed or silenced by the will of the dominant members of the class. By allowing students to write down individual choices and having the teacher the repository of this confidence, more valid data may be obtained.

It is very important that the teacher respect the privacy of the choices. The teacher must use this kind of information with great discretion, since it has the power to hurt infinitely more than a single judgment by a teacher. It is far more painful for the student to know that none of his peers chose him for team-mate than that the teacher gave him a poor mark in deportment. The papers on which the choices are made should be destroyed as soon as the choices have been recorded; the sociograms or sociometric charts should be filled in with code numbers or letters rather than actual names of students. Such confidential material should never be left out on a teacher's desk where curious students can have access to it. The information gained should not enter the gossip channels of the school, but could be relayed to the counselor, the principal, and other teachers in a professional manner if deemed necessary in the case of some individual students with social or educational problems.

Mr. Cecil was setting up a group situation for a quiz and asked the class to indicate in what group they would like to be for the test. In the class was a star athlete, a boy whose reputation extended far beyond the town. He seemed a nice fellow, although irregular in attendance and very quiet and unresponsive in class. He always sat with a group of boys who were also athletes, and the teacher had assumed they were buddies. But he was astonished to find that the star athlete was not liked by his "friends." Not one of his supposed buddies had chosen him. Mr. Cecil sought out the coach and asked him about the student, explaining what had happened. Both worked to help this boy handle more adequately his fabulous reputation, which was hindering, rather than helping, his long-term adjustment.

It is possible that some students, particularly those who fear that they will not be chosen, will develop great anxiety over the process of choosing. "Choosing sides" is often used in elementary schools, and there are always those who are chosen last. For some, this may have been traumatic.

We were observing a beginning teacher in one of his first efforts to set up small groups for working on a series of science problems. It was an experimental setup in which classes were separated into boys and girls on the hypothesis that girls often did less well in science because it was a "boy" subject. The teacher selected (on some basis which we never found out) five girls as team leaders. He asked them to select members of their "teams" in rotation. As each girl chose her best friend, then this girl coached her in whom to choose next. The horrible truth soon dawned on us: the least liked girls would be very obviously

sitting in the nearly empty classroom while the team captains reluctantly selected among the unwanted. The most painful incident of all was the very last girl: all five team captains simply refused to choose her. Her face was a picture of adolescent tragedy; our hearts broke for her. As the groups moved over to designated spots in the classroom we heard a number of angry mutters about the method of choosing. Later the teacher told us, with some surprise, that for some reason the method he had used in setting up the teams just had not seemed to work with the girls at all. In the boys' class (which we had not observed) he said the method had worked out very well. He complained that he just was not getting along with the all-girl class at all.

The use of the sociometric test may suggest to some students experiences of not being chosen and cause them great perturbation. Consequently, the teacher should reassure the class about the choice situation by making it as casual and "unimportant" as possible. By proper introduction, the teacher may allay some of these feelings, as in the following example:

TEACHER: I am going to ask you to indicate with whom you want to work for next week's project. Remember, you don't have to choose if you don't want to. You can leave the choice up to me, but I think our groups worked so well last time that we might as well continue our procedure. I will try to place you with others whom you choose but with whom you may not have worked before, just so we can all get to know one another better.

It is important to emphasize the timing of the sociometric test. Teachers who have followed the suggestions given here have reported that, if they plan carefully, and have a very interesting and involving activity immediately after giving the sociometric test, then students rarely if ever ask questions about it, because their attention has been drawn into something of competing intrinsic interest.

The first sociogram that a teacher makes is bound to be difficult. It is not easy to see the relationships indicated by the choices, and manipulating the circles and triangles around the paper so that the lines of choice are as direct as possible seems very difficult, particularly with 35 to 40 students. By making a sociograph (the chart previously referred to on page 208) first, the teacher can see some of the patterns. It may be that he will want to pick out only two or three students and see what the friendship pattern is that exists around them. A magnetic board⁹ may be very helpful in setting up a sociometric pattern easily, since it is an aid to moving the symbols around. A felt board¹⁰ may also be used. After doing several sociograms, the teacher may not need to make one for every class,

⁹ A magnetic board is simply a sheet of metal. Sociogram symbols are attached to small magnets and may be moved about the sheet of metal at will.

¹⁰ A felt board is made of felt attached to a sheet of cardboard or a strip of wood. The sociogram symbols are glued to strips of felt or coarse sandpaper. The figures then will cling to the felt panel.

because he will quickly gain skill in analyzing sociometric results. In looking for groupings, he will begin to observe the natural clusters that occur, to spot the "stars" without much trouble, and also to note the isolates and those who are rejected.

Using the Results of the Sociometric Test

After a sociometric test has been administered, the teacher is often amazed at the individuals who emerge as leaders or those who are not chosen. How reliable are the students' choices? It must be remembered that these choice patterns often shift. The grouping one week may differ considerably from that of the following week, and the grouping that occurs for one situation will be different from that of another.

The teacher will want to use sociometric information in order deliberately to influence the groupings in a classroom. Thus, one use of the technique can be as a check on the effectiveness of developing good human relations. Have the isolates acquired friends? There are some dramatic stories of changing social structures effected by utilizing sociometric insights.¹¹ Of course, it must be remembered that to understand the many factors that go into sociometric choice requires years of working with young people. A beginning teacher cannot immediately see the dynamics of choice: why Mary gets ten first choices to Andy's one, or why tenth-graders refuse to cross sex lines in choices. There is also some danger that

. . . the visual symbolization of the data on a sociogram will convey to the teacher the idea of a fixed and certain scientific reality. We fear that a teacher may think: "This is it. This is the way my pupils feel about each other; this is the way my class is structured." Such a static interpretation of the data is most unsound and unreliable. . . . A sociogram is a most effective starting point and signboard for launching a study of social dynamics in school groups. . . . Child societies change, develop, evolve.¹²

Identifying Peer Valuations: The Guess Who? Test

Another easily used tool to gain insight into student relationships is the "Guess Who?" test. This test was used by C. Tryon¹³ in the Adolescent Growth Study to find out what adolescents thought of one another. Since then it has been

¹¹ Hilda Taba, *Elementary Curriculum in Intergroup Relations*. Washington, D.C.: American Council on Education, 1950. See also Hilda Taba, and Deborah Elkins, *Teaching Strategies for the Culturally Deprived*. Skokie, Ill.: Rand McNally & Company, 1966.

¹² Commission on Teacher Education, *Helping Teachers Understand Children*. Washington, D.C.: American Council on Education, 1945. See chapters 9 and 10 for excellent material on the use of sociometrics.

¹³ Caroline M. Tryon, *Evaluation of Adolescent Personality by Adolescents*, vol. 4, No. 4. Research Society for Child Development, 1939. (Monograph.)

adapted for a variety of purposes in a variety of situations. The following material is typical of such a test.

Please fill in the blanks in the following questions with the name or names of students who best fit the description. Your answers will be confidential; you are asked not to discuss your answers with anyone. Be as honest as you can. Your opinions here will help us understand you and your classmates better so that our school program may be improved.

(The introductory paragraph above may be changed to suit the situation in which the test is given.)

1. _____ is the best sport in the class.
 2. _____ is the student who always knows the answer.
 3. The most popular girl in class is _____.
 4. _____ is an "apple-polisher."
 5. _____ will always help you if you need help.
 6. The person no one likes very much is _____.
 7. The most popular boy in class is _____.
 8. _____ is someone who likes to laugh and be jolly.
 9. _____ always brags and boasts.
 10. The best-dressed person in the room is _____.
 11. _____ has the best ideas for group projects.
 12. People in this class think that I _____.
 13. The person who always gets his/her feelings hurt is _____.
 14. _____ acts very snobbish.
 15. _____ gets mad whenever you say anything.
 16. _____ is a real "glamour girl."
 17. _____ is the best athlete.
 18. _____ tells lies.
 19. _____ acts silly.
 20. _____ acts too old for us.
 21. _____ acts too young for us.
 22. _____ is so shy and quiet you can't get to know him/her.
 23. _____ always tries to boss everyone.
 24. _____ isn't friendly.
 25. _____ isn't like the rest of us.
 26. _____ is a sissy.
 27. Someone who doesn't like me is _____.
-

Additional questions may be added. The teacher may notice some other types of behavior in the classroom and include descriptions in the "Guess Who?" test

in order to find out how such behavior correlates with the student's rating by his classmates.

Marjorie may be selected in the sociometric as a star and leader, but what are the characteristics that are associated with this position? From the "Guess Who?" test, the teacher may discover that Marjorie is listed as "friendliest," as "best-dressed," as the "most popular," as "the one who likes to laugh." He would know immediately what values were held in high esteem by this group. On the other hand, by seeing Julia's name associated with "dirty and sloppy," "always gets her feelings hurt," "always brags and boasts," and by noticing that Julia was rejected by a number of classmates and chosen by only one as a third choice, the teacher discovers some of the personal traits that are interfering with Julia's acceptance by her peers.

An interesting variation of the "Guess Who?" technique is the one used by Thelen in his research on grouping of students for teachability. In this questionnaire, the subject indicates behaviors he associates with himself, but also includes an evaluation of the behavior of the teacher and the perception the student has of the value the teacher places on this behavior. A fifth column might be added to include names of classmates whose behavior is characterized by the descriptive phrases. A full-dimensional picture of the classroom as perceived by individual students would be provided for the teacher. The variation in student perception will undoubtedly be of intense interest to any teacher administering this test; he must also have a relatively thick skin.

GUESS WHO¹⁴

- I. How often is each behavior done by you, and by the teacher? In the columns below, indicate how often each behavior is done by yourself, and by the teacher.

In each box in each column, write in one of these numbers:

1. Always—seems to happen every day.
2. Usually—this is done nearly every day.
3. Occasionally—occurs once every week or two.
4. Rarely—this has been done a few times.

- II. To what extent do you think that the teacher approves of these behaviors? In the boxes below, place the number which you feel indicates the extent to which the teacher approves or disapproves of these behaviors or actions.

1. Is really glad when a student does this.
2. Shows approval when this is done.
3. Neither approves nor disapproves of this behavior.
4. Barely tolerates this behavior.
5. Tries not to let this happen again.

¹⁴ Thelen, pp. 248-249.

III. How often?

I Do It	Teacher Does It	WHIO:	II. How approving is teacher?
Example: 1	4	a. talks about himself	4
		1. suggests new ideas when the group seems to be stuck? 2. continually asks questions in class? 3. talks the most? 4. <i>usually comes up with the answers?</i> 5. does not pay attention in class? 6. brings in a lot of extra work that he or she has done on things relating to this class? 7. usually thinks his or her idea is best? 8. gets things done when most of the class is confused? 9. <i>never breaks the rules?*</i> 10. offers compromises, when there are several sides being taken on a topic? 11. usually criticizes and blames other peoples' actions or ideas? 12. disrupts the work of the class by clowning and fooling around? 13. goes along with the class, and just accepts the ideas of others?* 14. worries about how well he or she is doing? 15. sympathizes with others when this is needed most? 16. usually talks out of turn? 17. seems to get upset when unable to answer questions? 18. presents ideas which influence the class?	

* Dropped from analysis as subjects were confused by item wording.

It is interesting to note the changes in value placed on traits at different maturity levels; the high popularity accorded one child in the tenth grade for being an athletic star may be reduced as the students move into the eleventh and twelfth grades, when social skills and adequacy in *heterosexual relationships* come to the fore. Moreover, different socioeconomic groups will value different personal traits. Whereas being intelligent and getting high grades may be valued by the college-bound group, the group that comes figuratively from "across the

tracks" may value more aggressive, less school-oriented traits. Or, as Coleman's study pointed out, what the adults in the school think are the values held by the students may, in fact, not be their values. In the upper-class high school students worked to get good grades, but did not value them; in one of the lower-class high schools studied, students not only wanted to get good grades, but held them in high esteem.¹⁵

It was also noted that as girls got older, they tended to value grade-getting less, with the result that the brightest girls were often those *not* on the honor roll! A study of bright adolescent students also demonstrated that these students had many self-doubts, were not as self-assured as their success would lead them to think, and also did not necessarily value their success.¹⁶

The "Guess Who?" test requires the same safeguards that should surround the sociometric test. The teacher will want to keep the findings in strict confidence. It is advisable to administer the test just before some very exciting event. In this way, the students will quickly forget the test itself and are less likely to compare notes about their responses. Another precautionary procedure is to have someone who is a stranger to the class come in and administer the test. Then, when this person leaves, he takes with him whatever the students have written. The psychological situation then is clearer, and the students feel less involved in the responses that were made and less threatened by the evaluations others have made of them or they have made of others. The responses may also be more valid.

Using Sociometric Test Results

The classroom uses of the information gained from this test depend largely on the sensitivity of the teacher. That this information is invaluable for the guidance of individuals is clear. But, in addition, tests such as the one described here are basic in any attempt to use the classroom situation for the improvement of human relations through adroit use of group procedures.

The teacher may find, for example, three students without any friendship ties in the class. But all three choose the star of the class for best friend and also choose the other highly popular class members. In grouping the class for some activity, the teacher may, with some probability of success, place these isolated students with those toward whom they have a positive feeling, and then surround the popular ones with their good friends as well. This technique recognizes positive feelings and provides a basis for the development of sound human relations.

In one tenth grade there were only two Negro girls. It happened that in three out of their five class periods they were in the same room. In all three classes, the teachers seated them together "because of course they would feel more com-

¹⁵ James S. Coleman, *Adolescent Society*. New York: Crowell Collier and Macmillan, Inc., 1961. (Originally published by The Free Press, New York.)

¹⁶ Abraham J. Tannenbaum, *Adolescent Attitudes toward Academic Brilliance*. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1962.

fortable next to someone of their own kind." The counselor for the tenth grade was concerned about some discipline cases and so conducted a sociometric test in one of the classes in which the two Negro girls were enrolled. To his surprise he found that, contrary to the opinion of the teachers, not only were the two Negro girls rejected by many of their classmates, but each was rejected by the other as well. On the basis of these findings, the teachers allowed the girls to sit where they wanted. As they became better integrated in the class and did not have to "live" closely with someone they didn't like, both girls improved considerably in class behavior. A follow-up sociometric test showed that both girls had acquired one or two friends and were no longer rejected by as many students as before, although they still remained on the fringe of the class society.

The sociometric tests and the "Guess Who?" tests have been discussed in some detail because of their value in undergirding the use of group techniques in the classroom. These tests dramatically illustrate to the teacher the subgroups that exist in a classroom and also indicate some of the peer-valuations that are active in the formation of these groups, as well as the general social valuations placed upon various characteristics and behavior.

RECOMMENDED READING

- Bonney, Merle E., and Richard S. Hambleman. *Personal-Social Evaluation Techniques*. Washington, D.C.: The Center for Applied Research in Education, 1962. Includes many kinds of tools for diagnosing classroom and individual interactions: sociometry, projective tools, inventories and personality ratings, observation tools, and the like.
- Caldwell, Edson. *Group Techniques for the Classroom Teacher*. Chicago: Science Research Associates, 1960. Practical guide for ways of using group procedures, and assessments of students' responses to group work.
- Gronlund, Norman E. *Sociometry in the Classroom*. New York: Harper & Row, Publishers, 1959. The classic work on sociometric techniques, with detailed analysis of findings and discussion of implication for teacher and student.
- Henry, Nelson B. (ed.). *The Dynamics of Instructional Groups*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1960. (Fifty-ninth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part II.) Includes probably the best descriptive and analytic statements about groups as they relate to teaching in theory and in practice.
- Kerlinger, Fred N. "The Authoritarianism of Group Dynamics," *Progressive Education*, 31, April 1954, 169-173. A very provocative commentary on the place group dynamics may have in the democratic process. Suggests some significant corrections for the all-out adoption of group methods.
- Lifton, Walter M. *Working with Groups* (2d ed.). New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1966. One of the best statements for teachers.
- Lippitt, Ronald, and Elmer Van Egmond (eds.). *Inventory of Classroom Study and Tools for Understanding and Improving Classroom Learning Processes*. Ann Arbor, Mich.: Institute for Social Research, 1962. Provides a number of variations on the sociometric test, "Guess Who?" test, and other measures of classroom climate.

- Miles, Matthew. *Learning to Work in Groups*. New York: Teachers College Press, Columbia University, 1959. Many excellent ideas regarding ways of using groups, evaluating group performance, and the kinds of tasks groups can perform.
- Shepard, Clovis R. *Small Groups—Some Sociological Perspectives*. San Francisco: Chandler Publishing Company, 1964. A sociological view presenting a new way of observing what happens in groups and why.
- Sherif, Muzafer, and Carolyn Sherif. *Reference Groups: Explorations in Conformity and Deviation of Adolescents*. New York: Harper & Row, Publishers, 1964. In-depth analysis of what group behavior means to young people; a valuable background for the teacher who can then translate these insights into educational processes.
- Smith, Louis M. *What Research Says to the Teacher: Group Processes in Elementary and Secondary Schools*. Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1959. A very brief summary of research findings and their implications for education.
- Thorpe, Louis P., and others. *Studying Social Relationships in the Classroom: Sociometric Methods for the Teacher*. Chicago: Science Research Associates, 1959. Small pamphlet that provides concise information on sociometric procedures, do's and don't's, and interpretations of results.

Front and Center

discussion, role-playing, games and simulations

10

The fundamental idea propounded by Dewey, that learning is an active process, has been substantiated by observation and research in countless classrooms. If the learner sits and lets knowledge flow over him like water over a rock, nothing perceptible is going to happen to him. It is only when a genuine interaction takes place between the learner and the "stuff" of education that an observable change occurs. Interaction does not mean merely running around. Activity that produces learning is that which occurs when thinking occurs; when facts are sought, weighted, sorted, ranked; when generalizations, conclusions, and solutions are proposed.

This chapter will present classroom techniques designed to bring the learner into a more active role in his own learning. These techniques are problem-solving class discussion, role-playing, and allied techniques; classroom learning games and simulations.

Classroom Discussion

There are many times when the teacher wishes to treat the class as a whole group, to develop in each student a desire to discuss common problems. For even the experienced teacher this demands special skill in order to help all the students feel part of a group inquiry.

First, he must select a problem that is really common to students, not just common to teachers. Second, he must be convinced that the problem selected can best be attacked by thinking aloud. Ideas often become more meaningful to students when they must chew them over, defend them, modify them, explain them to others.

The concept verbalized, however haltingly, is usually more lasting than the unvoiced concept. This kind of verbalizing is not memorizing, but the actual reworking of ideas to the point where the student can express the essential in his own fashion. In this manner, a whole group works together so that, while each shares in the common solution of the problem, the achievement also belongs to each individual in his own fashion.

What Is Discussion?

The teacher's role in the development of good discussion is tremendously important; it is all too easy to prevent any real thinking. Here is a verbatim report of one history class.

TEACHER: We have a real problem to discuss today. I wonder how many of you have thought about why we have an electoral college.

GEORGE: Because people in those days hadn't done much voting.

TEACHER: Well, that is not exactly right.

JOHN: Because someone suggested the idea, and no one could think of a better reason.

TEACHER: No. Can anyone give us the real reason?

SUSAN: Did it have anything to do with transportation?

TEACHER: Now let's not guess. This is a real problem. Can't we discuss it?

MARY: I think it was because the leaders didn't want the people to vote for president.

TEACHER: Now you're getting on the right track; any other good reasons?

Despite the teacher's disclaimer, this exchange is little more than a guessing game. The teacher suggested a problem that could be a discussable one. However, the teacher had an answer in his head and therefore no discussion was possible. Problems for discussion must have several equally plausible solutions, each of which needs careful examination if the most fitting is to be found. The history "problem" to which we listened had one "right" answer, according to the teacher, which the students had to figure out. There was no group thinking; in fact, it was not group activity at all.

Much classroom recitation is educationally sterile because teachers drag out of students a miscellany of uncertainly memorized and unrelated facts. It is true that facts are needed when an issue is at stake. But the issue comes first. Then facts must be chosen for their relevance. Judgment, not merely memory, becomes important. Discussion is not recitation. It is not just talking by people who know little and care less about the subject being discussed. It is not a debate in which

different factions try to "win" by fair means or foul, completely disregarding right and wrong. It is not an opportunity for one or two to show off how much they know while everyone else listens in bored silence.

What is a genuine discussion? Another teacher presented the problem of the electoral college in quite a different way.

TEACHER: We have a real problem to talk about today. There has been much discussion recently about abolishing the electoral college. What do you think about it?

GEORGE: Well, I think it has outlived its usefulness.

TEACHER: That's a good point; but John, would you agree with George?

JOHN: No—not entirely—uh—after all, the electoral college is part of our traditions, and in these times I think we should keep to our traditions instead of doing away with them.

SUSAN: Well, but John, if something isn't useful anymore, why should we keep on doing it? After all, if you had a car, you wouldn't keep on riding a horse and buggy just because your grandfather did it!

MARY: But the people must have had some good reasons for putting in the electoral college.

GEORGE: Except the only trouble is those reasons never worked. Don't you remember when we were reading about the—what was it?—Convention?—Constitutional Convention, I think . . .

TEACHER: Let's see, John, there seem to be two sides here. Will you have a try at saying what they are?

At this first stage in any discussion, the thinking is muddled, opinions are offered without supporting evidence; but the teacher is careful to keep in the background so that differences in point of view can be freely expressed. Such freedom is a fragile thing, and teachers must take care not to nip it in the bud by too early intervention.

Developing Oral Facility

The current crisis over the educational deficits of students who have grown up in poverty in rural or urban settings has focused attention on a major educational need: these young people are typically less able than their middle-class counterparts to express themselves, to use language effectively or accurately in class. While there are many causes for this lack, the school is the place where something should, and can, be done.

Gaining skill in discussion leadership and participation, then, is an important asset to which the teacher of any subject can make a contribution. When students are struggling to understand a concept, or frame a rule, or establish standards of criticism it is important that they do the talking.¹

¹ Arno Bellack and others, *The Language of the Classroom*. New York: Teachers College Press, Columbia University, 1966.

Controversial Issues: What Can One Discuss?

On some issues in our culture there is such grave divergence of opinion about right and wrong that merely to bring them up for discussion is to arouse violent emotions in the participants. It is often felt that areas of such strong public and personal reaction are not suitable for our schools, since the process of education ought to be based on fact and objective truth.

What is controversial in one part of the country may be taken as a matter of course in another part. It is possible in some sections, for example, to discuss interracial relations and do much to develop greater understanding. But in many sections such a discussion would disturb community groups and lead to serious criticism of the teacher. Similarly, study and discussion of such topics as religion, evolution, and dissemination of birth control information, will be likely to upset some communities.² Should the teacher avoid such issues? Most of the questions we have mentioned are in the realm of the social sciences, but obviously there are controversial issues in every field of study. Any teacher who encourages discussion may find himself teetering on the edge of a controversy.

Science classes would find that the question of evaluating the scientific evidence for, or against, fluoridation of the water supply or the relative effects of marijuana, is highly controversial. Increased attention to sex education has raised cries of everything from "degeneracy" to "Communist plot!" Or as one superintendent put it, "... in considering sex education we must make sure it is not only one more intrusion that robs critical time needed to teach basic skills."³ Another class could well get deeply involved with the question of whether a scientist has a moral right to refuse to work on armament research. If insecticides are used by a farmer and he is then able to provide a comfortable living for his family (and send his children to college), should he be forbidden to do so because such insecticides, 40 years from now, may upset the ecological balance in an area? If the farmers on the other side of the range hire a man to seed clouds, and thus get a good rainfall, while the farmers on this side get none and their crops and animals suffer, should cloud-seeding be stopped? The study of evolution as fact is still legally prohibited in some places; what does the teacher do with that section of the text?

Even a mathematics class, in discussing statistics and percentage problems, may bump into a topic such as, "What is a fair rate of return on a capital investment?" This is a controversial subject in the minds of many people.

A teacher may assert that some modern art verges on the ridiculous or may consider naturalistic painting as old-fashioned. Such statements can also be challenged as controversial. A teacher with a keen eye can find something controversial in the most innocuous-looking subject matter; and it is this element of questioning, of seeing that there are many facets to apparently simple situations,

² Maurice P. Hunt, and Lawrence Metcalf, *Teaching High School Social Studies*, New York: Harper & Row, Publishers, 1968.

³ John H. Machle, "How One School System Plans to Handle Sex Ed," *Council for Basic Education Bulletin*, 13, September 1968, 10.

that aids youth in attaining skills vital to their adult roles. Controversial issues help young people, further, in realizing that the world is full of contradictions; that beliefs vary among different people but may be valid nonetheless; that one cannot force one's opinions on others, that one needs to be able to take logical, clear, rational positions backed by evidence wherever possible. Only with such training will students be educated to be responsible citizens in a democratic society where controversy is the heart of progress and of governing.

Yet controversy is viewed with suspicion, both within the school and without. Studies and observation indicate that probably a majority of teachers avoid controversial issues, particularly those with a contemporary flavor. Even in social studies classes where one would most expect teachers to be committed to the discussion of controversial current affairs, one finds many teachers more comfortable with the safer controversies over past political or historical events.

There is considerable evidence, too, that the public views controversial discussions in classrooms with suspicion. Teachers may rightly fear that community opinion will not approve; that they will be accused of being "radical" or "immoral," or of putting the wrong ideas in the minds of youth. And that fear brings visions of dismissal. Or teachers may fear that students will start expressing ideas that are inappropriate, getting into areas where the teacher himself feels uneasy because the problems are unresolved. As a result, many teachers keep their courses on the dull and even keel of dry facts, uninspiring recitation, and memorization. Actually, the alternatives need not be so sharply drawn. It is possible for most teachers to engage in classroom discussion of some controversial issues. Of course, teachers who are biased, who are untactful and undiplomatic, will run into difficulties in this field just as they would in any situation that demanded mature appraisal.

Some criteria may be suggested here to guide the teacher in the choice of those controversial issues that ought to be discussed in classrooms:

Is this issue of significance to your students now? What is of concern to adults may not be important to young people, and perhaps ought not to be important to them until they grow into maturity. Don't foist adult perplexities upon youth!

Is this issue one that students may be able to understand? The special ideas and even the vocabulary of some problem areas may be too far outside the realm of their experience.

If the issue interests the students, is it possible for them to seek additional information to answer the kinds of questions they may raise? It is unwise to open up debate upon a question of importance in order to encourage young people to get the facts, and then not have sources of information from which facts may be obtained. Those issues that have no factual solution whatsoever are often merely frustrating for the whole class.

Will this problem, if discussed in class, help or hinder the long-run aims of the school in this community? The teacher may feel very strongly about a problem which, however, a given community is not yet ready to face. If such a problem is discussed in the class and the community objects, the teacher may have done basic damage to any further education along such lines in this community.

However, one does note a tougher kind of teacher emerging from education departments these days. With better education themselves, often with a wider, more cosmopolitan viewpoint, they are less likely to be cowed by the bugaboo of what "they" will think. Fortunately, too, because the new curriculum materials being developed in many of the experimental projects in numerous subject-matter areas stress inquiry-and-discovery approaches to teaching, they inevitably engage the teacher in discussion of controversial issues of many kinds. It is incumbent, therefore, that beginning teachers show common sense in their engagements with areas where society is still ambivalent, but also enter teaching with some skills that produce effective and educational discussion.

Avoiding Common Errors in Discussing Controversial Issues

Although the teacher should be alert to the usefulness of arousing discussion in areas of controversy, he will, of course, run into trouble if he is unfair to any particular point of view. The teacher should attempt to develop an open and unprejudiced mind, since the students in his class may represent all shades of opinion and attitude. The teacher must give a fair hearing to all viewpoints. Then, if criticism arises, he can point out that the democratic process insists on an "open market place for ideas." Obviously, the teacher should beware of needlessly stepping on toes. If he is not, he becomes a Don Quixote, tilting with ideological or personal windmills, and his long-run effectiveness is lost in a maze of recrimination and suspicion.

The discussion of controversial issues, or of any important subject for that matter, has one special hazard for the beginning teacher: the embarrassing question.

Mr. Slone was finishing a unit on racial tolerance. There had been much lively discussion, and his students had been very interested. He felt that it had been a highly constructive experience all around. The film "Americans All," from the "March of Time" series, had been chosen to help summarize the unit. There were a few moments of class time left after the motion picture, and discussion was somewhat desultory. The group was pretty well "talked out" on the subject. Then Philip, who could usually be counted on to provide a jolt to the group, raised his hand: "Mr. Slone, would you marry someone who wasn't of your race?"

What happens next? This is the kind of question that teachers fear, some of them so much that they will not risk raising the issues at all. Yet there are always ways to handle these questions. Here are two ways in which Mr. Slone might have replied:

"Well, Philip, I think that's a very important question. Frankly, I don't have an answer to it. I'd like to give you a good answer, and not just the first thing that pops into my head. Let me think about the problem, will you? And then perhaps we can come to an understanding of it."

"That's a serious question you raise, Philip. It is asked by many people whenever this subject is discussed. I think I know what I would do, but before I give you my opinion, I would be interested in hearing what other members of the class think."

Oh, you say, the teacher is just stalling for time. Yes, the teacher is asking for more time; he is trying to arrange his ideas so that he can give a reasoned answer, a response that cannot be misinterpreted. The motives of students who ask these questions may be suspect, but the issue still has to be faced. The teacher cannot allow himself to become confused or upset. Here is the moment when clear thinking is needed most. Yet the atmosphere is so charged with emotion that it is often most difficult to think clearly. So the teacher should be ready to turn the discussion back to the class, while both he and they work out their thinking. There is great wisdom in not answering immediately. Admitting that a pat answer is not at hand may be the most convincing evidence of honesty.

The Art of Questioning

The teacher, by presenting provocative situations, is posing not one, but many questions. Yet each series of explorations involves a quest, which in turn implies selection of questions that require student response above the level of recall or "giving back teacher what he wants."

The following criteria help decide what questions are, or are not, worth asking.

The question implies a genuine interest in divergent points of view. It suggests the existence of differences of opinion and indicates that such differences are respectable.

The question probes an area of experience which is of immediate, as well as more remote, concern to young people. A question including some present-day reference, but also by implication embracing more general aspects of the problem, will encourage discussion.

Discussion questions imply values and the process of evaluating known facts, rather than a memory search for right facts opposed to wrong facts.

Questions that ask for most, least, best, worst; which would you rather do; is it better to; and the like, encourage a sorting and evaluating process that promotes an exchange of knowledge as well as ideas. Those that ask for facts, pure and simple, are hardly likely to stir much interest. The students who have the facts will smugly wave their hands, while those who did not read the assignment will sit silent, barely aware of the topic suggested.

Questions requiring mere factual answers are:

- Why did some fish feel compelled to come out of the water and become amphibian? How did it happen? What caused it?
- Who was the world's first chemist? What do you think he did?
- Why do rats have no gall bladder?

Other questions require a reporting back of a series of concepts that are not really debatable. Such questions are:

Do you suppose Beethoven worried about this aspect of harmony?

If Congress refuses to pass legislation asked for by the President, what could be done to persuade Congress?

One third of us will die of heart disease. Can we do anything about it?

Some questions may provoke undesirable or irrelevant student responses unless very carefully handled. For example:

Why should anyone take algebra?

Are women healthier than men?

This sort of question is almost too inviting to be overlooked by the classroom clown. Unless the teacher desires a light touch or is prepared for a raucous session, such questions should be avoided.

Questions such as the following are more apt to move a class toward a real discussion:

Should insurance be bought by everyone?

Should we have censorship of the quality of network television?

In what circumstances would the T-formation be most advisable?

These questions indicate that several good answers are possible. Besides, the problems are currently significant to young people and have been discussed widely in many other places besides the school. The students may already have encountered various points of view on the controversy in newspapers and current magazines, so that some groundwork is already laid for exchanging ideas. The beginning teacher would be well advised to practice the procedure of framing provocative questions.

The tone of voice used by the teacher is important to good discussion. Not only framing good questions but asking them in a tone of inquiry is essential. A dull, bored, sarcastic, or dogmatic tone of voice can kill student expression of opinion, no matter how good the question.

Ways of Stimulating Classroom Discussions

Discussions emerge from any stimulating activity, whether initiated by the teacher or by the students. Any of these materials and resources may be utilized to develop class discussion: motion pictures or film strips, particularly open-ended or offbeat films; bulletin board displays; odd or unusual objects brought to class; resource visitors; newspaper items; pictures; local events (school, community, or national); commemorative days (for example, United Nations Day); and radio recordings.

The medium used to promote discussion may itself take all the available time. This is particularly true of motion pictures, visitors, and recordings. If any of these take the whole class period, there will not be time to exploit the interest aroused. The next day may be too late.

The medium used may raise more questions than the teacher is interested in

opening for discussion at this time. The teacher may be startled or upset to find the students interested in some area other than the one he anticipated. Practice with discussion, as well as with procedures for eliciting class interest, will provide the teacher with an all-around useful skill.

The Discussion Leader

Once the discussion has been started, it is the job of the leader to keep it moving forward toward possible consensus. A discussion may, it is true, have so much vitality that it will continue regardless of anything the leader may, or may not, do. When students have become accustomed to talking together about live issues in the classroom, there may seem to be no leader at all. In fact, after the class is over, the discussion will rage on; in the hall, the lunchroom, the library, or on the stairs. Certainly it is a sign of good education when students are so consumed with a desire to talk together about important things that discussion continues whether a teacher is present or not.

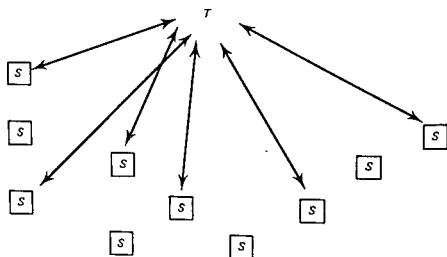
The three roles of the discussion leader may be described this way. *First, the leader acts as a "backboard,"* tossing questions back to the group much as a backboard bounces the ball back to a person practicing his tennis stroke. *Second, the leader acts as a traffic policeman,* directing the flow of questions and making certain that individuals take their turn in debating the issue. *And third, he acts like a guide with a road map,* stopping from time to time to show the group the road they have taken, the branches that have been noticed but abandoned, the wrong turnings, the fork in the road that now approaches—and pointing toward the goal of the journey.

The Leader as Backboard

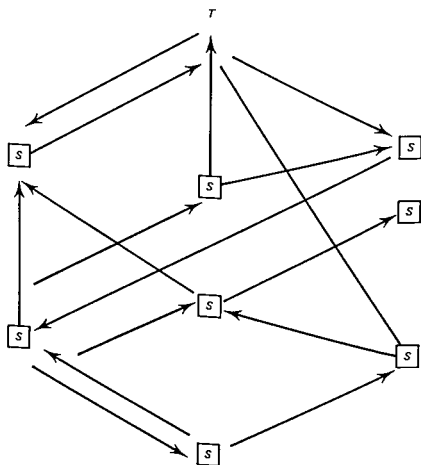
The first activity of the leader needs constant emphasis. A good leader rarely, if ever, answers a question unless it is a minor question retarding good discussion. He sees to it that members of the group answer the important questions. Many would-be discussion leaders cannot resist the temptation to answer, to explain, to clarify. That is what the group must do for itself. When a student says, "Isn't it better to spend our tax money on hospitals than on schools?" the teacher should answer, "That's a good question. What do you think about it, Henry?"; "Sue, what is your opinion?"; or "We haven't heard Jim on this problem yet"; or "Donald's father is manager for a local hospital; what do you think, Donald?" A simple matter-of-fact question may be answered by the teacher if it is not so important that the group should take time to get the needed data by itself. A minor question of semantics or a quibble over whether a report is in error should not be allowed to impede the process of group thinking.

A cardinal principle of good discussion leadership, and the one which is probably most often ignored, is to *toss all important and vital questions back to the group.* Otherwise, the discussion becomes a series of little conversations between

the teacher and members of the class. The discussion pattern that is merely dialogue would look like this:



A picture of participation in a discussion where real group thinking was going on would look more like this:



The Leader as Traffic Policeman

The second role of the leader is that of traffic policeman. He uses his leadership prerogative to direct questions to specific members of the class, to see to it that the more verbose do not dominate the discussion, to keep voices down to a reasonable level, and, finally, to see to it that only one person is speaking at a time. These disciplinary functions are highly important, but must be exercised with care. A leader who pounces on a class as soon as a slight rise in temperature is noted, the moment a voice becomes a bit shrill in argument, or when small bits of conversation spring up in answer to someone's statement, will soon thwart student interest in discussion.

A really good discussion is bound to generate some heat. The leader must see to it that this rise in interest does not interfere with logical and productive group thinking, but the restraining hand should be lightly applied. A word of caution, such as, "Now, let's not get too excited, yet!" can ease mounting tension and remind the students that after all they are in a classroom and engaged in an intellectual discussion. Similarly, the leader must be alert to guide the discussion toward students who have not as yet contributed, to interrupt—judiciously—those students who tend toward speechmaking and must use every bit of knowledge he may have about a student as a method of helping that person make his best contribution. Knowledge of a given student's interests, out-of-class activities, father's or mother's occupations, and travel experiences is very useful when the leader seeks a strand, no matter how tenuous, to weave the interest of a student into the discussion going on around him.

This policeman function, therefore, is not only one of keeping the traffic of ideas flowing, but also seeing that each contributor gets his full share of attention and opportunity to express himself—no matter how shy and inarticulate. Student observers, keeping checks on how many times individuals make contributions, and the type of contribution each makes, are invaluable assistants to the new teacher. The class also becomes interested in charts of its own discussion. Such reports, treated with objectivity, are among the most effective devices to keep loquacious students in check. They can for the first time see themselves in perspective and realize without too much ego-damage how much more time they have taken of the total allowed the class than they deserve. A participation record, used to encourage those who do not participate and keep in check those who tried to talk too much, is one of those indirect, group-centered disciplinary devices that will help the new teacher in class control. Such devices will do far more than any teacher's admonition or the even less relevant prod of a grade. Grading on "participation" is a good way to subvert genuine student participation in discussion.

The Leader as Discussion Guide

The third major function of the leader is to act as overall guide for the direction of group discussion. Thinking of a discussion as an unfolding map

may clarify the nature of the process. After the first experience of trying to keep 30 or 40 lively minds focused on a single problem, one sees how rough the going may be. Many ideas are suggested, and for every idea there may be at least three objections, complaints, asides, personal comments, or amendments. How does the question asked by Dave relate to the remark made by Joan 3 minutes earlier? Such problems arise every other moment during the course of a lively discussion. Thus, the leader as guide is involved in helping the class perform the various steps in problem solving. Briefly, these steps are as follows:

What is the problem? At this stage, the leader may have recourse to the chalkboard. It is useful to get agreement from the whole class at the very outset about the limits of the topic that has sparked the discussion. Then, if an irrelevant comment is offered, the teacher—or other students as they gain in facility—may point to the statement on the board and say, “Is that part of our problem?”

What are the major issues? Here, again, leader and students should use the chalkboard to list the things about which there is significant disagreement. Matters of fact need to be listed in a separate column as topics for further research. It may be—and this often occurs—that a discussion must be temporarily suspended at this stage. It is found that what has appeared to be a disagreement is merely a difference of opinion about the facts on a given problem. The teacher may then utilize student interest in solving the problem to motivate his class to find the answers in fact to the questions where apparent disagreement occurs.

What are the possible solutions? As the issues are clarified and as the more important are separated from the less important, the focus of the discussion is on solutions for each major issue. Suggested solutions are then posted on the chalkboard. Again, additional research may be called for to determine whether a given solution is feasible.

What are the consequences of possible solutions? The test of feasibility must be applied. Can the proposed solutions work? Are they in accord with what is known about human beings and society and the physical world? At this stage, proposed lines of action or syntheses of arguments are discarded, and those the class as a whole find agreeable are chosen.

What consensus is reached? In a real discussion it is usually both unnecessary and undesirable to have a vote. With sufficient participation by the group, the leader can usually tell when general agreement has been reached. Constant voting on each point would be both a waste of time and a useless interruption. In this last stage of discussion, where the sense of the group is finally attained, there is a feeling of satisfaction and relief. The leader may step in to summarize and point out where the group has traveled in its thinking.

What action is planned? This stage is not always reached. Where a discussion involves merely an intellectual exchange of somewhat abstract ideas or general principles, no action is likely to occur. However, if a discussion starts on a topic such as “What play should the seniors choose for the last school assembly?” then some plans for action should result. Sometimes committees are selected to carry out the plan. Other outcomes may be writing a letter to the local Congressman,

preparing a skit for a PTA meeting, preparing a plan of study for the succeeding six weeks, or agreeing on the strategies to be used in the next basketball game.

These steps in the process of group thinking constitute the fundamental structure of problem solving. As the leader becomes accustomed to thinking in this sequence himself, he finds it relatively easy to help others to do so. As an aid to logical thinking, the leader can make explicit which step the class is approaching. He can say, for example, "We must define our problem before we go on to discuss where and how we disagree," as the class approaches the first step; or, as the group edges around the second step, "Now let's be sure we know what the issues are in this problem before we try to find out what a good solution would be."

The leader also assists in the appraisal of contributions. When a student makes a suggestion that is supposed to be pertinent, the leader will want to ask, "Now is that your opinion, or is that a fact?" The source of information is significant. Developing a critical use of standard sources of information is a major result of learning. Did the newspaper report the event accurately? Why does this paper's report differ from the one in this magazine? How did radio and television report the same event? If two students report on an interview, do they both report the same data? Such questions will develop out of discussion when the leader directs attention to the quality of individual contributions. As students gain facility in discussions, they will learn to discriminate among authorities, to think objectively rather than emotionally about facts, and to modify opinions on the basis of logic.

Finally, the leader of discussion is interested in keeping the group moving toward its goal. "Needling" the group to sharpen its thinking, getting it back on the right track, challenging it to new ideas when the discussion seems to be bogging down, are all part of the art of leadership. To serve these purposes, a series of questions or queries may sometimes be formulated prior to the discussion by the leader. Obviously, these stimulants should be judiciously administered lest the leader get too far ahead of group thinking. It is important to check frequently with the group by means of such remarks as, "Do we all know what the point under discussion is?"; or "Was that last issue clear to everyone?" before moving on to newer fields. The leader may find that while the interest and vitality of a few keep a discussion moving swiftly forward, a good portion of the class has lost the thread of the argument several twists back. A group with widely differing intellectual abilities is likely to make the faster students impatient, or move too quickly for the slower ones. A teacher may want to use some of the small-group techniques outlined in Chapter 9 in order to raise the skill level of the whole group, impressing particularly upon those who think most quickly that waiting until the slower ones catch up is essential to democratic group thinking. This does not mean, however, that creative individual thinking is to be discouraged.

Personal Qualities for Discussion Leaders

Wishing won't make a teacher a good discussion leader. Some particular qualities needed are discussed in the following paragraphs:

A personal and lively interest in the subject under discussion. Good leaders do not try to promote a discussion about topics they themselves find boring or dull. Excitement generated by the leader is contagious and will help enliven a classroom group.

An open mind about the outcomes or the pattern to be taken by the discussion. Group thinking changes as groups change. When choices are to be made, it is unwise to have too great a personal-emotional stake in any one choice; this is likely to spoil the quality of leadership. Students soon descend to the guessing-game level of participation under this kind of leadership.

A sense of the humorous as well as a sense of the serious. Being able to shift from low gear to high, from the light to the heavy and back again, is essential to the art of leadership. Ability to laugh at the unexpected remark or retort will keep young people in tune with the leader in more serious areas.

A real interest in the opinions of young people. Some adults enjoy discussions with other adults, but become bored when youngsters express naïve, bigoted, rigid, or ignorant opinions. Discussion does not flower in this sort of atmosphere.

An ability to suppress the expression of his own opinion most of the time. Students are quick to sense what the leader considers to be the correct point of view unless the leader is skillful at summarizing both sides of an issue impartially. As rapport is established, the leader may use the assertion of an opinion to encourage disagreement. However, this technique should be used carefully.

The teacher will seek to develop his own skill in leading discussions, but all that has been said here should be passed on to students in order that they too may become more skilled in thinking through problems cooperatively and giving leadership to such endeavors. The more the teacher is able to let student leaders preside during appropriate discussion periods, the greater will be the opportunity for students to gain in poise, responsibility, and maturity of reflective thinking.

Structured Discussion

The use of debate as a way of structuring discussion has a long educational history. However, one sees somewhat less use of formal debate in today's classrooms, and interscholastic debating is not as common as it was some time ago. Formal debate, with an affirmative and negative team, following the rules of debate and rebuttal, may be a useful way to put some of the loquacious and intellectually able students into a situation that requires discipline, clear organization of ideas, awareness of both sides of a proposition, and quick utilization of data for rebuttal purposes. The preparation for a formal debate can take many days of independent and team research; it provides a way to motivate

students to use many resources, including the library, and adds the drama of confrontation plus the social glue of working as a member of a team. Typically, debate has been limited to social studies and English classes. Yet the value issues in many other areas can just as well be used for debate if the teacher sees the issues. For example:

RESOLVED: "Artists are born, not made."

RESOLVED: "Scientists should not work on research that goes against their beliefs."

The limitation of formal debate is that, typically, a team consists of only two, or at most three, members. The rest of the class, who may be the ultimate judge of "who wins," does not get to participate in the research and intellectual activity. A class as audience can, of course, become very involved in a well-presented formal debate. In one classroom, the class other than the debaters found the material so interesting that they asked for additional time so that anyone could express his opinion.

An adaptation of the debate technique can be utilized so that the whole class does have the experience of taking a position, finding supporting evidence, identifying the points the opposition may make and being ready with data to refute them, by combining small-group work with a debate panel. (See Chapter 9 for a guide to setting up groups.) If the class has 36 members, six groups can be organized of six members each. Three groups will choose, or be assigned, the pro position on an issue; three groups the con position. Each group, after some preliminary research and getting to know one another, selects a spokesman who will represent that group on the debate panel. After sufficient time has been allowed for the groups to assemble their data, each representative takes his place on the panel, with three pro members on one side, three con members on the other. Rules may be established by the class governing the order in which the panel presentations are made: alternating one from each side, for instance; limiting presentations to 3 minutes each; and so forth. When all the arguments for each side have been formally presented, the spokesmen then return to their home group members, for instructions for rebuttal. Each group then must think with its spokesman about what the weaknesses are of the other side's position, how to counter their most telling points, and similar issues. Again, the spokesmen return to the debate panel, and the rebuttal takes place. When each side has had its 2 minutes per member, the teacher may open the question up to the whole class so that team members who may have felt their spokesman did not cover the group position, or omitted a point, can have a chance to participate in an informal way.

The procedure described has the advantage of getting everyone involved in the "debate." It also provides group support for the spokesman, who can turn to his classmates on his team for ammunition and ideas. This procedure is also helpful with groups who are not used to oral discussion or who shy away from public speaking. The formal debate is useful with students already full (sometimes too full) of independent initiative; the structured discussion-debate

using teams and spokesmen, provides support for those less skilled and less motivated to express opinions before others.

Role-playing and Related Techniques

Role-playing is unprepared, unrehearsed dramatization. A class discussion may be focused on the issue, "If the United States has a surplus of food, to which country should it go and under what terms?" The teacher may assign some members of the class the problem of portraying the role of spokesman for various countries in need of food, while other students represent United States officials. Then these "pretend diplomats" meet to present their viewpoints. By the time the role-playing is finished, the teacher has gained insight into 1) how meaningful the subject matter was to the young people; 2) what concepts they had developed about foreign viewpoints; and 3) how well the individual student could relate subject matter to the real people involved.

Role-playing may be used to portray the students' version of the dramatic moments from a book that is being read in class. The book may concern historical figures, may be biography or autobiography, or may even be in a foreign language. Some teachers have had students give their own version of Shakespeare's plays spontaneously, thus gaining an idea of what elements of the story remain in the students' minds. Sometimes current events may be portrayed in "live" action: a local controversy over taxation, a debate in Congress over foreign policy, a conflict over gun-control regulations or consumer protection. One very effective use of role-playing has been in the development of democratic attitudes toward people of different ethnic groups. Here students take the roles of other persons in their daily lives in order to gain greater understanding and appreciation of the problems all people have.

Role-playing differs from the usual type of dramatic work in that no script is needed; there is no memorizing of parts, no rehearsal. In fact, the value of role-playing as a teaching device lies in the spontaneity of presentation. The action comes directly from the individual's creative use of his own experience.

There are only three prerequisites for good classroom role-playing: 1) the class should potentially have a common interest in the issue at hand; 2) the participants should have the issue clearly in mind; and 3) the experience should be regarded as a means of learning, not entertaining.

The following specific examples will show how the technique can be used.

In a United States history class, the material being studied concerned George Washington's selection as the first president. After reading the text and having a brief discussion about it, the teacher asked one student to be George Washington and two students to be the committee who called upon him to ask his acceptance of the nomination. At first the students were unable to portray the roles, but after further class discussion as to how George Washington actually would have felt and would have answered, after consideration of the appropriate arguments that might have worked, the little drama was re-enacted to the satisfaction of the class.

A journalism class was discussing interview techniques. In order to make the lesson clear, the class described various kinds of persons one might interview: the high-handed celebrity, the sobbing mother, the tough politician, the frightened child, the garrulous gossip. Then members of the class practiced different interview approaches to each situation. The discussions after each presentation often resulted in a replaying of the interview, with different performers trying different techniques. The teacher discovered that some students had more insight than others into how real people act, and that those with less insight learned a great deal by having to think through the problems presented.

In an inner-city home economics class the teacher utilized a series of newspaper reports on high credit charges to slum residents, with particular emphasis on the shoddy practices of high-pressure, door-to-door salesmen. She developed with her classes incidents in which the girls played the role of the housewife visited by a home-repair salesman, an encyclopedia salesman, a TV salesman. Each class focused on some aspect of the problem which differed from the interest of other classes. Each however, via role-playing, was able to see how gullible one can be when approached by "smooth-talkers."

Role-playing: How To Do It

The specific steps to be taken in initiating role-playing are described below. These steps are merely suggested. After one or two tries, the teacher probably will want to alter or adapt them to suit his own situation.

Selecting the situation. The situation should, first, be a fairly simple one, involving one main idea or issue. Second, the situation should be one involving personalities. The issues should be those which arise because people have different desires, beliefs, hopes, and aspirations; or they should be problems that arise from the inability of people to understand the viewpoint of others. When introducing this technique for the first time, the teacher should have an idea for a role-playing situation clearly in mind. Open-ended scripts or stories can be used as role-play starters.⁴ Later, the class members will be eager to describe situations of their own choosing and select the roles that should be taken. It is easiest to begin with situations that require from two to four characters. Larger numbers are confusing until students know more about what they are supposed to do.

The teacher, with the help of the class, should describe each of the roles to be taken. As an illustration, suppose the role-playing concerns the problem of incorporation of an agricultural community. Opinion is divided; to some residents the increased services do not seem sufficient to counterbalance the increased tax load; to other residents, incorporation offers distinct advantages. A petition is being circulated. The role-playing then revolves around the various

⁴ Jean Dresden Grambs, *Intergroup Education: Methods and Materials*, Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1968, pp. 59-86. See also Fannie Shaftel and George Shaftel, *Role Playing for Social Values*, Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice Hall, Inc., 1967.

characters who might be concerned with such a problem. Farmer Jones is selected as one role to be portrayed. The essential details of his role are sketched in: he is married, has lived in the area about 15 years, and has never made very much money—just enough to live nicely. Other details may be added as appropriate: he is stubborn; or he is a sharp bargainer; or he is very slow and ignorant. After one portrayal, the teacher and the class will learn how much description of each role is necessary. Then the teacher and the class should set the situation: Farmer Jones is visiting Farmer Smith in order to get his signature on the petition, or Farmer Jones has come to ask Farmer Smith's advice about the local controversy.

Choosing participants. When first trying out role-playing, the teacher should select students who are fairly well informed about the issues to be presented and who are imaginative, articulate, and self-assured. The show-off often freezes up or clowns absurdly; the shy student feels insecure and inadequate. Both types can be assisted in their own personality adjustment by first being given minor prop roles, such as that of secretary or doorman, and later being allowed to take larger roles. It will also be found that those with dramatic training are not necessarily the best participants in spontaneous dramatics, since role-playing draws upon the individual's own resources of feeling and imagination.

Setting the stage. When the participants have been selected, they should be sent out of the room or to some quiet corner for about 2 minutes. They should be instructed to "think themselves into" the role they are to take. The participants may want to decide together how the scene will look, where the furniture will be, who will enter first, and other details of staging. Later, the class as a whole may describe the complete setting before the participants are selected.

Preparing the audience. While the participants are out of the room for their 2 minutes of thinking, the teacher should direct the class to observe the action as though each one were acting in it. The students should ask themselves: Is this the way these people act and feel in real life? The students should be concerned with how a housewife would act and what she would say when defending her interest in sentimental romance, rather than how Harriet Smith acted as the housewife.

The exploratory nature of role-playing should be clear to both the participants and the audience. It should be understood that no finished product is expected, but that, in fact, everyone will learn more if the participants are considerably less than perfect.

Acting out the situation. When directing role playing the teacher becomes a cross between director and audience. When a student seems to be slipping out of his role, the teacher should remind him of what he is trying to do. When the students seem to reach a dead-end, the teacher should cut the situation short. However, the teacher should otherwise allow the action to follow its own pattern as completely as possible, since this very naturalness, the feeling of freedom to become wholly involved in the situation, contributes immeasurably to the reality and the success of the experience. Few role-playing episodes

will last more than five minutes, unless the situation is very complicated or the students have a great deal of information.

Follow-up. When the situation is finished, the class will be eager to comment. This stimulation of discussion, centering on how people feel and why they act as they do, is one of the basic contributions of role-playing. The students may have so many ideas for a re-enactment of the situation that it may be appropriate to go through it again with new actors. On the other hand, the students may feel that more knowledge is necessary before trying again and may want to do more reading and study about the personalities involved. This outcome, of course, is most desirable; and the alert teacher will make the most of his opportunity.

The participants should report how they felt as they acted through the role-playing. Their feelings will provide the teacher with a clue to the students' insight into the wellsprings of human emotion.

In the follow up, as in the preparatory period, the teacher should always stress that no one is expected to do a perfect job in role-playing. He should make a point of expressing pleasure at how well the students have succeeded in the task. Role-playing can, in this manner, be an effective learning medium, which provides both students and teachers an opportunity for joint creative experience.

Here is an example of a complete role-playing activity.

There had been much concern in this school about intergroup relations. Some covert conflict seemed to exist between the Spanish-American group and the other students. The English teacher, Mrs. Morgan, felt that some dramatic enactment of a related situation might help clarify the immediate school problem. At the start of one class she announced that they were going to try a new kind of dramatics; they would make up a play as they went along and see how it worked. She then presented the "plot" to the class:

The son of one of the leading ranchers in the area, Sidney Stuart, had been killed in Vietnam while serving as a Marine. In memory of his son, Mr. Stuart said he would like to make an annual award of \$50 to the student in the school considered the best citizen by a student committee. The first year the award was made, the committee, composed of George Green, Doris Bacigalupi, and Tony Nevin, chose Bill Thompson. Bill did very good schoolwork; was one of the track stars of the school; and just the previous semester had, at great personal risk, saved a whole family from disaster. Bill was a Negro. When Mr. Stuart heard who had been given the first award he was furious. He told the principal that under no circumstances could he agree to the award being given only to a Negro student. "Isn't there a white student who is a good citizen?" he asked. He said he would even give another \$50 award and let Bill keep the one for which he was selected. The principal, Mr. Jenkins, agreed to call the student committee back together again and explain Mr. Stuart's position.

The role-playing took up at this point. Students were selected for the various roles, and the "committee" met with the "principal." The members of the

first committee were assigned specific roles by Mrs. Morgan. The student to play George Green was told to take the position that Mr. Stuart was right, that another award should be selected and then they could have two awards. The student who played Doris felt that this was absolutely wrong and was opposed to a second award. The student who played Tony carried the burden of the committee decision. The class listened to the description of the situation and then, after the role assignments had been given, there was a marked rise in interest and alertness. This problem assumed reality, and everyone leaned forward to see what the "committee" would work out.

The committee carried on a rather extensive argument with the principal. The students playing the roles found it difficult to reach agreement. The principal seemed to favor Mr. Stuart's proposal. The meeting finally was called to a close by the principal, who suggested that they think it over until the next day, since they obviously were having difficulty in reaching a decision.

At this point, when Mrs. Morgan turned to the rest of the class for their reaction, there was an immediate hubbub of comment. Mrs. Morgan merely waited, without saying a word. One by one students started to voice their opinion of what they had seen. One student finally stated that he knew what he would have done if he had been the principal. This sounded like a good idea to Mrs. Morgan, so she called him up to be the principal, quickly picked a new committee from the class members; and they went through a new sequence. As the new principal worked toward his solution, which was not a very ethical one, the teacher turned herself into a secretary and announced that Mr. Stuart was waiting to see him. Without warning she called one of the class members up to be Mr. Stuart. Then a new situation evolved, with Mr. Stuart reacting to the proposal of the principal. This discussion grew quite heated as the student playing Mr. Stuart flung himself into the role of a highly prejudiced person. The teacher felt enough had been said and, again being the secretary, told the principal that he was wanted on the telephone. Then the role-playing ended for the time being.

A lively discussion ensued. The students by this time were very deeply involved in the problem. Two major ethical points had emerged, one regarding attitudes of tolerance, and one regarding the justification of a lie. The lie had been the last principal's solution, which then became the focus of class discussion. By the end of the period, the teacher felt that the groundwork had been laid for a follow-up discussion the next day regarding tolerance and understanding of others. Eventually she hoped to open up the immediate school problem of understanding and working with the Spanish-American students in the school.⁵

If a teacher is alert to student reactions, there can be a very rich role-playing experience. In the example, the teacher captured a student idea regarding a solution and "tried it out." By seeing their suggestions in practice, the students gained a deeper insight into reality.

⁵ Adapted from Shaftel and Shaftel. See "Second Prize," pp. 368-374.

The use of open-ended stories or scripts, or films, as the starters for role-playing is a helpful device for the teacher who is not ready to develop a role-play "from scratch." For example, one very brief short story has four characters: a teacher and three students. The teacher selects students to play these roles. They are seated in the front of the room. As the teacher reads the story⁶ she points to each of the role-players, identifying who they are. The story provides the plot and the characterizations of each person and the position each person in the situation takes regarding the problem or issue at hand. When the climax is reached—that is, when the problem appears insoluble—the story or script ends. The student role-players then go to teams of their classmates who have been assigned to them as helpers. There is a "teacher team" and a team for each of the three students in the problem situation. The object of each helping team is to give the role-players help in figuring out a strategy to solve the problem when the role-playing situation begins. This kind of group support (described also on p. 235 in reference to structured discussion) makes the ad-lib part of role-playing much easier and, also, of course involves the whole class in what is going on.

The use of role-playing has been found particularly effective when the role has immediate carry-over into real-life situations. For example, when developing the idea of working in a group, the teacher can use role-playing to show the class how different people assist or impede the process of group thinking.

Miss Hood had been concerned about some of the group projects in her class. Several of the groups were working very well together, but in two groups there was dissension because of dominating leadership, as well as disagreement over what the group was trying to do. Therefore, at the beginning of one class hour, the teacher said that she was going to ask several members of the class to be a "pretend" group. She called up five students and gave each a separate slip of paper, cautioning them not to tell anyone what was on the paper. The slips read as follows:

1. You are very eager to be chairman of the group.
2. You don't like anything that is suggested.
3. You are very enthusiastic about almost any project suggested.
4. You refuse to take sides in a discussion.
5. You are eager to see the group working together on almost anything.

She then asked the students to pretend that they were a group similar to one in class and gave them a project to plan that paralleled those being worked on. The students threw themselves into the roles with great vigor, to the amusement and chagrin of various of the class members who saw their own group roles being portrayed. After about 10 minutes, when it was obvious the group wasn't getting very far, the teacher called the group to a halt and then threw

⁶ Grambs, *Intergroup Education: Methods and Materials*. For example of open-ended story, see pp. 60-62.

the problem open to the class to discuss. She started by asking them to identify the roles each person had taken.

This situation may well arise in science, home economics, business education classes, and often in varsity sports. If individuals have developed inadequate or difficult personal roles for themselves, role-playing may help them find a more adequate pattern of behavior.

Role-playing is especially useful in any situation where various kinds of leadership are being evaluated. A teacher who is the adviser to the student council may have to aid the president of the student body in appropriate behavior. The president may need help in developing the ability to be fairly assertive and poised, in being able to interrupt long-winded speeches, turn aside provocative comments, encourage, and praise. By acting out some of the typical experiences in presiding, the president may become better equipped to carry out his responsibilities. Similarly, a team captain may be able to work out appropriate ways of encouraging the members of the team. In sessions of role-playing, a sympathetic audience can say, "Bill, you shouldn't be so sharp when you tell Joe about his mistakes." Or, "I think, Bill, you might try another kind of comment when George hogs the ball." Then Bill can try out a few different phrases or comments and see whether the group feels that these are better ways of working with the team members.

Role-playing can often be used in guidance. A group of boys, for example, may be unable to participate in social affairs because they completely fear a tête-à-tête situation with a girl. Role-playing some typical boy-girl situations may help such a group develop confidence. Sometimes it is desirable to have a visitor act the girl's role, since it may be difficult to have a student do so without feeling embarrassed. The boys then try out how they would ask "her" for a date, what they might say at a dance, how they would make a graceful exit at the end of the party, and other crucial moments in social relations. This kind of role-playing may be preceded by make-believe telephone conversations to a girl. The telephone-conversation situation is most appropriate for role-playing because it is such a common problem situation for adolescents.

Teachers who have made much use of role-playing find that it improves if frequent evaluation periods are held. One history teacher assigned portions of the textbook chapter to groups of two or three to enact. After each series of enactments, an evaluation committee reported on how well the episodes were presented, and suggested improvements for next time. From the committee came suggestions such as these: "Don't turn your back on the audience"; "Make clear to the group just what each person is supposed to represent"; "Don't giggle or act silly"; "It helps when something exciting is selected." These provided impetus toward doing a better job the next time.

Sometimes the role-playing group is requested to summarize in writing the main principle that it hopes to project. Then the group has a definite focus. The principle is not announced in advance, of course, but the audience is alerted to its responsibility to capture the major idea. A brief quiz after a series of

role-playing experiences can be used to show how well each group made its point. The success of the groups in projecting concepts may furnish guides for continued training in selecting problems for role-playing.

There are a number of variations on the technique of role-playing, which the teacher will soon discover for himself. Teachers who are interested in trying this method might do well to form a small group and run through some role-playing of their own in order to know how it feels. Teacher-principal, teacher-parent, and teacher-student problems are fitting subjects for such practice. An experience in role-playing is the best way of discovering what this method accomplishes for the participants.

Writing Skits, Radio Scripts, and Plays

In role-playing, the classroom teacher has a very simple but effective tool with which to build some original and dramatic presentations. Such presentations require carefully planned and detailed scripts. Informal role-playing is one way to get a first draft of a script.

An assignment had been given to try to write a simple one-act play. One student chose the scene in which Anne Boleyn, just before her beheading, says farewell to her daughter. The student asked various class members to take the few roles needed and to ad-lib the parts. The students, after a quick briefing, excitedly took part in the scene. The conversation that ensued had the breath of real life in it. As a result, the student playwright had the basic structure of her play set up and also obtained some important clues about how people might interact in a crisis like this.

This technique is applicable in almost any situation where a script or playlet is to be written. Radio scripts provide good motivation for writing in classes where writing is not the primary aim. They can be easily tape-recorded and played back to the class, and local radio stations can sometimes be persuaded to use the better efforts.

A print-shop teacher had taken his class on a field trip to a newspaper plant. When they returned, the teacher suggested a follow-up activity involving the preparation and recording of a script describing the field trip and what was learned. The class divided into groups: one group were the experts, to check the script written by the writers for accuracy of facts and scientific soundness; another group, the sound engineers, arranged for the recording equipment and studio; another provided background music and sound effects; and still another became the critics to see that the whole thing was an effective presentation and could be used for PTA, assembly, and other Industrial Arts classrooms.

The idea of the "living newspaper," in which a group of individuals trained in role-playing techniques act out current happenings for an audience, may also be readily adapted to the school assembly program.

Simulations and Educational Games

The use of classroom games for review or drill purposes is discussed in Chapter 11. There are, however, other kinds of classroom games whose purpose is the learning of new concepts, gaining new information, or obtaining insight into a complex process.

The classroom game for learning may also be a "simulation" technique which resembles role-playing, described earlier in this chapter. A person takes the "role" of spokesman for a foreign country for instance, and must plan strategy for keeping his country neutral, offsetting aggressive moves by another country, achieving a favorable balance of trade, or some other international confrontation. The major difference between role-playing and simulation techniques is that in the latter, provision is typically made for a total class to participate—either in subgroups all engaged in the same simulated situation or as persons involved in the total problem. Roles are assigned, and, also, data are provided which identify certain "givens" or assumptions that must guide the actions of those in the roles. A simulation exercise, also, may involve the introduction of new data or new conditions which make it necessary for rethinking of the strategy or "next move" to be employed.

Simulations and classroom learning games are often very similar since the learning game may also involve the taking of roles as in a simulation exercise. In reviewing the literature, it is not always clear which particular package is a "simulation" or a "game." The concept of "gaming" as a way of predicting the possible future has been widely used by the military in thinking ahead to a possible battle plan, and in training business executives to assess decisions about production schedules, labor disputes, and so forth.

The educational game is one of the newer innovations in the instructional field. The few games that have been given some widespread trials, such as "The Democracy Game" and "The Life Career Game,"⁸ indicate that students do gain new insights. The most obvious of the research findings conducted on the use of these games with secondary-school youth is that students are plainly interested and involved in what is going on. The second noteworthy finding is that both The Democracy Game and The Life Career Game, as examples, provide youth with a sense of increased power over the future, and also an increased awareness of the complexity of social or personal decision-making. Unfortunately, these educational goals, while highly significant for the individual, are not ones that typically find their way into objective test results. Teachers may thus see classroom games as ways of filling time, or of motivating a class to do "real" learning, when actually the game provides some uniquely real learnings.

The utilization of the game as a motivation to further research or study of a traditional type should not, of course, be underestimated. In one experimental

curriculum program⁹ students are provided with the actual advice given to Elizabeth I of England and Philip II of Spain just prior to the great battle of the Spanish Armada. Both rulers were in fact given different advice by several of their most important ministers. Students are asked to develop a strategy based on the advice given and to plan "their" strategy for the impending conflict. The class, in teams, then plays out the strategy each side has agreed upon, changing their tactics as the other side also changes. As a result they have some idea of the problems of strategy, tactics, and logistics in a battle; but they are in many instances also motivated to do further reading about what actually happened and how historians have reported the event.

The Life Career Game, mentioned above, could lead to a formal study of vocational planning, job opportunities, an analysis of why women work, or a study of family problems—a whole range of subject matter depending on the course in which the game was introduced: sociology, home economics, or in group guidance.

One by-product of using games in classrooms has been the observation made by many educators that students who are typically described as underachievers respond to the idea of games and also tend to do as well as any of their classmates.¹⁰ While games are relatively new, it is probable that teachers will find increasingly that new curricular materials will include some kind of simulation exercise or game. The creative teacher will also be stimulated to adapt the games he finds, to invent new ones, and to encourage his students to adapt existing models and to devise original ones.

RECOMMENDED READING

I. Discussion

- Amidon, Edmund, and Elizabeth Hunter. *Improving Teaching: The Analysis of Classroom Verbal Interaction*. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1966. Provides vignettes of classroom discussions and shows how the teacher can analyze these in order to improve the quality of interaction among students and between teacher and students.
- Barnlund, Dean C., and Franklyn S. Haiman. *The Dynamics of Discussion*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1960. Basic book of theory and practice.
- Bellack, Arno, and others. *Language of the Classroom*. New York: Teachers College Press, Columbia University, 1966. A research report that shows how much teachers talk.
- Dale, Edgar. "The Art of Questioning," *The News Letter*, 34, December 1968, 1-4. (Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio 43210).
- Fessenden, Seth A., and others. *Speech for the Creative Teacher*. Dubuque, Iowa: William C. Brown, Publishers, 1968. Provides help for the teacher's own speech behavior, and in chapters 12, 13, and 18 gives guidelines for group discussion techniques.

⁹ From *Subject to Citizen*. Educational Development Corporation, 15 Muffin Place, Cambridge, Mass., 1968.

¹⁰ Boocock and Schild, pp. 251-254.

- Grossier, Philip. *How To Use the Fine Art of Questioning*. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Teachers Practical Press, distributed by Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1964. (Paperback) A brief guide to the use of questions. Not as good as Sanders (below), but makes some useful observations for the beginning teacher.
- Gulley, Halbert E. *Discussion, Conference and Group Process* (2d ed.). New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1968. Shows the interrelatedness of the procedures involved. A good basic text with practical tools described for evaluation.
- Sanders, Norris. *Classroom Questions: What Kinds?* New York: Harper & Row, Publishers, 1966. (Paperback) Adaptation of Bloom's *Taxonomy of Educational Objectives* into practical terms for the classroom teacher. Most examples from the social sciences, but useful for all teachers.

II. Role-Playing

- Bernard, E. J. "Teach Retail Selling through Role-playing," *Journal of Business Education*, 39, November 1963, 61-62.
- Blackhurst, A. E. "Sociodrama for the Adolescent Mentally Retarded," *Training School Bulletin*, 63, November 1966, 136-142.
- Chesler, Mark, and Robert Rox. *Role-Playing Methods in the Classroom*. Chicago: Science Research Associates, 1966. Although most of the examples are of elementary classrooms, the techniques are carefully explained and can be adapted for secondary-classroom use.
- Corsini, Raymond J., and others. *Role-playing in Business and Industry*. New York: Crowell-Collier and Macmillan, Inc., 1961. (Originally published by The Free Press, New York.) Useful ideas presented, which can be adapted for students in vocational and commercial programs.
- Garvey, Sancha K. "Simulation, Role-Playing, and Sociodrama in the Social Studies." *The Emporia State Research Studies*, 16, December 1967. Emporia, Kans.: The Kansas State Teachers College. A brief discussion of the techniques noted, plus a bibliography.
- Guss, C. "Role-playing Simulation in Instruction," *AV Instruction*, 11, June 1966, 443-444.
- Kirk, B.C. "Preparing Office Clerical Workers through Role-Playing in the Secretarial Block Class," *Business Education Forum*, 21, February 1967, 8.
- Klein, Alan F. *Role-playing in Leadership Training and Group Problem Solving*. New York: Association Press, 1956. This small volume is one of the best practical and specific guides for using role-playing.
- Shaftel, Fannie, and George Shaftel. *Role-playing for Social Values*. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1967. The best guide available for the teacher. Provides theoretical background. Moreover, approximately half of the book is given to open-ended short stories as stimulators of role-playing.
- Shaftel, Fannie, and George Shaftel. *Building Intelligent Concerns for Others through Role playing* (rev. ed.). New York: National Conference of Christian and Jews, 1965. Revision of the popular pamphlet describing the use of role-playing on the basis of problem stories.
- Zeleny, Leslie D. *How To Use Sociodrama*. Washington, D.C.: National Council for the Social Studies, 1964. (No. 29 in the "How To Do It Series") This brief summary of the technique of sociodrama is designed to be of maximum practical use to the classroom teacher. Includes a good bibliography.

III. Games and Simulations

- Boocock, Sarane S., and E. O. Schild (eds.). *Simulation Games in Learning*. Beverly Hills, Calif.: Sage Publications, Inc., 1968. The most comprehensive report of educational games and simulations currently available. The editors and contributors are among the leading producers and pioneer researchers in this field. Includes excellent bibliography.
- Carlson, Eliot. *Learning through Games*. Washington, D.C.: Public Affairs Press, 1969. Discusses "strategy games" used for aiding in discovery of techniques for decision-making and in understanding principles of group effort.
- "Childcraft" catalog. Childcraft Education Corporation, P.O. Box 94, Bayonne, N.J. 07002. Free. Listing of numerous games for many situations, people, and interest areas.
- Coleman, James S., and others (eds.). "Simulation Games and Learning Behavior," *American Behavioral Scientist*, 10, October 1966, Part I: 3-32; and November 1966, Part II: 1-36. Both issues of this journal are devoted to discussion of games and some research findings. The opening article by Coleman is particularly valuable in pointing out the educational value of games.
- "Consumer." New York: Western Publishing Company, 1969. Simulation game showing problems of finance and credit.
- "Disunia," "Division," "Panic," "Sunshine," "Destiny," "Mission," "Dig": simulation games available from Interact, P.O. Box 262, Lakeside, Calif. 92040. Learning about social problems through simulation.
- Egerton, John. "Academic Games: Play as You Learn," *Southern Education Report*, 1, March-April 1966, pp. 2-4. Describes how games are used in a new educational program at Nova schools, Fort Lauderdale, Fla., including mathematical games and others mentioned in this chapter.
- Foreign Policy Association. "Resources on Simulation Games." New York: The Association, 1968. 345 East 46th Street, New York 10017. A mimeographed bibliography and listing of sources for games for many subject areas. Also includes a bibliography.
- "Games in the Classroom," *A Scholastic Teacher Report*. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Scholastic Magazines, Inc., 1967. A collection of articles which originally appeared in *Scholastic Teacher*.
- "Ghetto." New York: Western Publishing Company, 1969. Simulation game which provides knowledge of life in a slum, crime causes and effects, ghetto education, and possibilities for escape.
- Guetzkow, Harold, and others. *Simulation in International Relations: Developments for Research and Teaching*. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1963. A valuable overview of simulation as a classroom procedure, with details regarding one of the most elaborate of the simulation devices used to develop understanding of international relations.
- Robinson, James A. "Simulation and Games." In *The New Media and Education*, Peter H. Rossi, and Bruce J. Biddle (eds.). Chicago: Aldine Publishing Company, 1966. A valuable summary of developments in the field.
- Ryan, T. Antoinette. "Use of Simulation To Increase Transfer," *School Review*, 70, June 1968, 246-252. A research report that indicates increase in student learning when variety, choice, and simulation are utilized.

Holding Power

teaching for learning and retention

11

"We went over that in class; why don't you remember?" is a not-infrequent complaint of teachers to their students. The teacher who ignores the necessity of drill and review, and the importance of developing study skills, may very well discover that his students have trouble retaining subject matter. Exposure is one thing; retention is another.

Distinguishing between Drill and Review

Drill provides intensive repetition to ensure swift, accurate response; it is intended to establish associations that are available without "thinking-through" each time the associations are needed. Review may be defined as *reconsideration of learning* in order to deepen the understanding of relationships. The separate elements of these relationships may require drill. Many times, therefore, drill and review work together to increase retention.

Obviously not everything studied is a fit subject for drill, but once it has proved to be appropriate, the learning established is retained best when it becomes part of the larger pattern of understanding that is furnished by review. For example, it is necessary to drill some words in spelling. But these ought to be the words needed by a student to express himself in writing. He does not need drill on words he will never use in writing. Even those words on which drill

seems justified will be retained correctly only if they are reused in further writing. It is this rewriting, then, that becomes the best kind of review.

Many long hours are still wasted in secondary-school classrooms drilling materials that are never needed as automatic responses. Still more hours are spent unprofitably drilling materials, however much needed, in a setting that is without meaning for students.

The distinctive procedures for drill and review have been generalized in the following discussion so as to be applicable in most secondary-school classrooms.

Suggestions for Using Drill

One repeated criticism of today's secondary schools alleges that drill has been outlawed. Hence, so the argument runs, learning is not as solid as it used to be: spelling is poorer; arithmetic is weaker; handwriting is less legible.

Actually, drill in its proper place is as strongly recommended as it ever was. The "proper place," however, is better defined than it used to be. It is now recognized that drill must be restricted to skill learnings: motor skills, such as using tools and machines; intellectual skills, such as using an index or developing correct pronunciation in a foreign language. Drill is wasted on principles, such as Gresham's law; on attitudes, such as a feeling of responsibility toward one's community; and on appreciations, such as responsiveness to music. In addition, three other more specific limitations on drill are:

1. All students may not need repetition of the same material. Only rarely should the whole class be engaged in identical drill.
2. Unless great care is exercised, repetition quickly becomes monotonous and breeds misbehavior.
3. Only a few skills can be drilled at a time; otherwise, retention is poor.

There are a number of helpful considerations to be absorbed by the teacher before he can use the drill successfully:

1. Make certain that the student realizes why he needs the skill that is being drilled. No one gains much from repetition unless he can see a need for it.
2. Take time to see that the student understands how to perform the skill. It is quite possible to instill an erroneous, awkward, or confused procedure.
3. Supervise initial practice closely. There are so many variations in the way learning proceeds that diagnosis and adaptation of practice are of great importance. The student must capitalize on his strengths and consciously avoid his weaknesses.
4. Introduce variety to retain good morale. The next section of this chapter suggests games as one means of minimizing monotony.
5. Keep adjusting both the amount and the kind of practice to the individual student. Spelling bees are good examples of drills that give

- most practice to those who need it least and stress oral repetition when written would be more appropriate.
6. Use shorter periods and space them over some time. Long drill periods tend to suffer from students' "going through the motions." Effective drill requires continuing effort to improve.
 7. Offer regular opportunities to apply what has been learned. This provides reassurance that the labor of drill is worth it.
 8. Resist the temptation to keep adding items for drill. Unfortunately, so many practice exercises are available that it is all too easy to use one more to "keep them busy."
 9. Provide a number of ways to get help. Since good drill is individualized, assistance must be, too. The teacher should meet with individual students as fast and as often as he can. But aid can also be furnished by other students; sometimes, teams of two students can act as "coach and pupil," aiding each other and reversing roles at regular intervals. Self-checking exercises also give responsible students a chance to develop their own insights.
 10. Devise graphic ways of recording progress. Individual charts, score cards, and rating sheets make improvement concrete and apparent. They become a silent challenge to push a little higher, showing a student where he started and how far he has climbed. These charts should not be posted for public display. The laggards are only humiliated further and those ahead can become insufferable snobs.

Games for Drill

In all classes, there is a certain amount of material that is, in itself, not very interesting: connecting a name with a date or an incident in history; spelling new words or names of objects; remembering sequences of events or processes; learning terminology. These, and similar kinds of material, are easily adapted to game situations. The students learn the material more readily since the atmosphere of the classroom is encouraging rather than discouraging.

Teachers in the elementary grades have found games to be essential, not only to learning skills, but also to help children work together as part of a group. The technique is not used as much in secondary school. There is an unfortunate impression that using games is "kid stuff" or "sugar coating." The attitude that learning, to be genuine, must have more unpleasant than pleasant aspects is all too prevalent in modern culture. Yet, such an attitude is a denial of what is known about how people learn: namely, that they learn when they wish to learn; that more is learned from success than from failure; that more is learned from pleasant than from unpleasant experiences. It must also be remembered that secondary-school students are not far removed from childhood. They enjoy many activities common to both stages of development. Adults play games, too: bridge, poker, betting on the horses!

Games are useful to students and teachers because:

They break classroom routines in a pleasant way.

They provide an opportunity to see familiar material in a new relationship.

They are excellent motivation for all students for the kind of learning that requires drill. Is the motivation to learn and to retain and apply, or to win the game? Who does best in the game? The fact that students become interested in the game acts to balance their reaction against drill.

They help the uninterested to take part in the class. One of the most important contributions of games is that students who have not done the work because of lack of interest, ability, or some other reason become engrossed in the competitive situation and find themselves arguing about right or wrong answers as volubly as those who always do the work. The class, caught up in a game, can spend energy and time debating *subject matter* that under standard routines they would dismiss with boredom or disdain.

They are fun.

The imaginative teacher can make up his own games, but here are some examples that can be adapted to many classes.

"Who Am I?"

A world history class, after a study of Greek and Roman history, could be divided into two teams, one taking Greek historical figures and the other Roman. Each team decides on the figures to present, one for each student. A student gives to the other team one or two clues about his identity; the other team is allowed a certain number of questions to help them guess. If they fail to guess in a stated time after using up all their questions, they do not earn a point. The teams alternate in asking each other to guess the essential characteristics of an individual. The following adaptations can be made.

Science: identify different chemicals, insects, diseases, germs, plants

English: identify characters in a book, parts of speech, authors, books or poems

Music: identify musicians, instruments, selections from recordings

Art: identify artists, paintings

"Twenty Questions" is a variation of "Who Am I?" A master of ceremonies and four "experts" seat themselves at the front of the room. The emcee starts the game by announcing the subject he has chosen for himself—animal, vegetable, or mineral; person, place, or idea, according to the particular class and subject. On the board, hidden from the experts, the exact item is written. The object of the game is to see whether the experts can guess the identity of the emcee, using only a total of 20 questions that can be directly answered by "Yes" or "No." The class is in on the secret, since they can see the emcee's "identification." Using only four students as the questioners and a different emcee each time lessens the possibility of confusion in the class. It is true that

few students actually participate since most of them make up the audience. The level of interest can be raised by having the emcee and the experts represent two different teams previously set up in the class. Score can be kept on how often each group of four is able to guess correctly within the specified number of questions.

Baseball and Football

These games are very similar and may be alternated according to the sport in season. Basketball and track rules may also be used. The class is divided into two teams, and a captain is chosen either by the team or by the teacher. The teacher or the students (or both) have previously composed a series of questions on class material. The questions are sorted into three groups by the teacher or by a committee of students: easy, hard, very hard. In baseball, a correct answer to an easy question gives the team a one-base hit; a hard question, two bases; very hard, three bases; and some especially difficult questions can be added for home runs. Each side gets its innings; three wrong answers are equal to three outs. Then the other side is "at bat." The role of the captain is to decide the "batting order" and what kind of hit the student is going to try, although often the decision on the level of question can be left to each team member when his turn comes up.

A diamond placed on the board and a scorekeeper will assist in keeping track of the progress of the game. The teacher acts as umpire; otherwise, student-squabbling over a right or wrong answer can spoil the game. Since the students invariably know the rules of these games very well, it is not difficult to clear up the possible points of controversy. In baseball, it is important to decide whether, if a man is on first base and the next student answers a two-base question, that puts the first man on third base or gets him home for a run for his team. The class can decide this issue quickly before the game starts.

In football, the questions are ranked by number of yards according to their difficulty. Each team gets four questions (four "downs") to make the necessary 10 yards; or the ball is handed over to the other team. The farther down the field one team gets toward the goal line, the farther the other team has to carry the ball back down the field in the opposite direction.

As a variation the two teams may previously have had a chance to prepare the questions to be asked; thus, the drill is made doubly effective, since the students must know the material in order to ask the questions to begin with, then must know it in order to answer. The teacher or the students may decide the degree of difficulty of the questions; the teams may get only the questions asked by the other team, or the questions may be mixed, giving each team a 50-50 chance of getting its own questions.

Evaluation may be carried on by the teams or by selected members if the questions are submitted prior to playing the game and are reviewed for pertinence, clarity, and significance. The teacher may choose to review the questions and give added points to the team that submitted the better questions.

Answers to the questions may also be provided in advance by each team for the teacher to check; this ensures even more review.

Instead of having the teacher give the questions, each team may do so; one person acts as pitcher and tosses the ball (question) to the batter on the other team; then the next person in line takes the floor as pitcher, and so on.

Each team may be penalized for infractions of the rules, such as getting too noisy, illegal coaching, asking questions that had previously been ruled out, and similar faults. The teacher may also choose to penalize a team for poorly thought-out or superficial questions. One further word: Penalties should usually not be invoked until the class has become used to playing the game.

Two eleventh-grade Business-Law classes, one slow and one average in ability, played "baseball" as part of their review before a quiz. Both classes enjoyed the game greatly; the slower class was easier to control and did not get as excited or full of "team spirit" as the other class. When the game was halted for another activity (hearing a recording), the two classes were reluctant to stop, even though the material had been relatively uninteresting and remote in time. The students paid close attention to both the questions and the answers in order to be sure that their team's plays were being called correctly.

"College Bowl"

In this variation of the popular television program, a quiz master introduces the contestants. These students may be representatives of teams; or groups in the class may volunteer for the game or may be chosen by lot by the teacher so that everyone has a chance and obligation to participate. The contestants are replaced at regular intervals during the game. From a box, the quiz master draws a question that has previously been prepared by a committee or by class groups or teams. Any one of the contestants may answer the question, the one raising his hand first usually being chosen to do so. If a student once raises his hand, he cannot withdraw it. For each correct answer, the contestant gets a tally, which may be his personal score or part of his team score. If none of the contestants can answer, audience volunteers may try, getting a chance to add to their team score. However, if the questions have been prepared by the teams, they should be so marked that a team member does not try to answer a question he has himself prepared.

Card Games

The game of "Authors" is an old and popular game. In it a set of cards is made up with the names of famous books and plays and their authors. The cards are shuffled and passed out to four to six players so that all have six or eight cards. The rest of the cards are put face down on the table. Each person tries to match author and book. Each such pair is placed in front of the player and gives him one score point. Each person must draw one card and discard one card. He has an option of drawing from the discard pile (those left face

up) or from the pile that is face down. However, if he draws from the discard pile, he must take either the top card, or—if he wants one of the other cards—all those preceding it. The student who correctly matches all the cards in his hand first, wins.

The variations of this game applicable to other fields are many. Names, dates, events can be matched in history and social studies classes. In science, matching names and properties of materials can be arranged. In English and foreign-language classes, such a game can assist in vocabulary drill, in learning the parts of speech, and in practicing good usage. Other variations could be used in shorthand, bookkeeping, drama, journalism, psychology, mathematics, and art and music appreciation courses, among others. Certain commercially prepared games, such as "Al Pha Bet,"¹ designed for vocabulary and spelling improvement, and "Euro Card," which develops knowledge of Europe through map orientation, are worthy of attention.²

When using homemade materials, the teacher probably should prepare the first few cards, but completion of the rest would be a worthwhile student project. Thus both the students who make, and those who use, the cards are gaining practice in review, with a special kind of recognition for talent in making neat cards for the game. In fact, some students may select the items for the test; others may check the items for accuracy, relevance, and coverage; and, finally, a group may elect to cut and letter the cards. In this way, many talents are used at many levels of intellectual competence and cooperative effort.

Card games may also be used to learn sequences or chronology. Thus, some of the cards may be a number series and the others a set of historical events; the object of the student then is to put the cards in the right sequential order. This variation might best be played by one student alone, then checked by another for accuracy as a quick method of individual practice and review.

Limitations of Classroom Games for Drill

The teacher should select the members of each team on some basis that protects the feelings of the students. Under no circumstances should a student choose his own team.

The spelling bee model of a game is not recommended. As has already been pointed out, those who are least successful, those who are least adept at the type of problem presented, are those who go down first. Those who know the most get all the practice.

One other comment about games is apparent: the games described here all assume that the content or skills selected for drill are carefully chosen. Games are a very effective method of making drill interesting and enjoyable, but it is important that the drill be directed toward genuine learning.

¹ Richard Higgins, *Al Pha Bet*. Miami, Fla.: Solar Products Corporation, 1966.

² Robert W. Allen, *Euro Card*. Fort Lauderdale, Fla.: The Marct Company, 1967.

Review Procedures: Some Generalizations

Review furnishes the overall structure for retaining learning. Both the learning of skills developed through drill and the learning of concepts, attitudes, and appreciations are joined in a framework of concrete relationships. The culmination of a unit in science, for example, might well demonstrate some skills with laboratory equipment and materials besides some ideas, feelings, and sensitivities about the need to conserve natural resources. When the student sees how all these learnings belong together, he has an organizing structure that helps him hang on to what he has studied.

How can teachers regularly provide good opportunities for review? Some part of each day's work should be devoted to it. No student should begin or leave a class with the loose ends of learning dangling; he needs a chance every day to tie things together.

Review may begin the work of the day. This opportunity is particularly valuable for those who learn more slowly, precisely because they do not "tie things together" well. Review may encompass a brief statement by a student, or several students, on: 1) the material covered yesterday, or 2) today's assignment, or 3) the plans made for today's work. Since yesterday's class, each student has been taught in four or five other classes. The work of each class is usually unrelated to that of the others. If the student has the work of any special class clearly in mind, it is that of the class he has just left and not, in all likelihood, the class he is now entering.

Some fields of instruction probably do provide a more immediate sense of organization than others. Mathematics, for example, is often taught so that each day's work progresses rather inevitably from that of the previous day. In a Problems of Democracy or drama class, on the other hand, the sequence may depend on long-range understandings, with some elements playing a part one day but not necessarily entering the picture again for some time. For example, in Problems of Democracy, an understanding of propaganda techniques contributes in some measure to understanding advertising and consumer buying but may soon drop out of consideration as other aspects of the course are viewed. As the study of political ideologies is approached, the earlier study of propaganda may be pertinent again. In drama, pantomime technique returns repeatedly in the development of the course.

Review may also end the work of the day. The few minutes before the bell rings are not the time to introduce material: students are much too aware that the end is near. It is wiser to do work clearly labeled "The End for Today" and which strengthens the student's sense of having accomplished something. The review may center in such queries as:

- How would you summarize what we did today?
- How does this relate to what we have been studying?
- What next steps do you see?

Review procedures allow excellent opportunities for students to integrate and apply knowledge from all areas of their experience to the material at hand.

The review at the end of the unit is, of course, a larger undertaking. Perhaps most difficult of all in this kind of review is the task of involving all students in the reviewing and reconsideration. It is essential that slower students be given an opportunity to participate in this important task.

Probably the least effective review procedure is the recitation, the teacher-student response situation, or the oral quiz. In such a situation only the student being quizzed is actively involved; the others are nervously or angrily wondering what question will hit them!

Review procedures can be improved. It helps to develop with the class a guide for review. The major divisions of study can be established by discussing basic questions with small groups and with the entire class.

What were the major things we learned in this unit? Students should be encouraged to try to add personal touches as they look back on their work. Standardized summaries should be avoided. A student's own chart, his own card file, his own generalizations couched in his own language, his own collection of examples and reports—these will serve him better than any "prepared mix."

How did we arrive at what we know? A renewed sense of the sequence of development lends clarity to the review: "First we did this and that led to something else, which developed into some further study." It may help to think again of the specific activities: the survey, the role-playing, the group work. How did they contribute? Or it may be useful to recall some materials: a motion picture, a tape recording, a series of pamphlets. With what content or skill were they associated? Sometimes it is even worthwhile to repeat an activity (such as an especially rich role-playing experience), or to use a resource again (perhaps an unusually stimulating motion picture).

Where can we apply what we have learned? Students should know the uses of knowledge and skills in a world where they will very soon face adult responsibilities. Where can they use the results of their study of "Color and Texture" in art, of "Weather" in science, of "Percentage and Interest" in mathematics, of "Personal Hygiene" in physical education?

How does this unit relate to what we have previously learned—this semester, last year, in elementary school? Articulation of learning both within the secondary school and with the elementary school is tenuous at best. It can be improved only when each secondary-school teacher learns himself what his students have been taught before, uses this knowledge in the planning of new units, and reinforces and reconsiders the old learning with the new.

Review procedures should, of course, be related to evaluation procedures. In part, evaluation will include paper-and-pencil examinations. If an examination is to appraise broad concepts, then the review should be of the same quality. It is frustrating for students to have a review on one level when they know very well that they will be quizzed on another. One way to ensure a common understanding about emphasis is to ask the students themselves to prepare examination

questions, discussion of which can then clarify the remaining problems. It is advisable when this is done to include some of the better questions in an examination.

Supervised Study

Many secondary-school teachers in the academic subject fields plan supervised study for each period. Out-of-school competition for students' time means that often homework is either not accomplished at all, or is done rapidly and carelessly. In addition, if students do not know how to study, the teacher can provide needed guidance only if he is able to observe the habits they possess. In-class study time, however, does not mean the last three minutes of the period; who could even start to study in so short a time? Sample assignments carried on in the classroom, under the teacher's watchful eye and helping hand assist in translating theory into practice. As the year passes, concerned teachers will continue to allow time for supervised study so that students can develop greater sophistication in their approach and so that assignments may increase in depth as students reveal their proficiency.

Supervised study naturally helps students work more effectively out of school as well as in. Moreover, once they have been encouraged to transfer their improved techniques to other subjects as well as to at-home assignments, a cumulative effect will be generated that results in continuing success.

Whether study is to be in or out of class, the importance of teacher supervision must be emphasized. Supervision begins with *preparing the students to use study time in class to advantage*. Such preparation includes:

Agreeing with the class on the purposes of the study period. Often motivation for using in-class study time is on the low level of "If you don't do this in class, you'll just have to do it at home." This implies that learning is a distasteful enterprise best terminated at the earliest possible moment. A better approach is to help students see the importance and relevance of the material being studied. Then the study time in class becomes an opportunity rather than a chore.

Providing specific things to be gained from the study. The questions to be answered, concepts to be understood, problems to be solved, and information to be collected should all be understood by the class before the assignment is undertaken.

Identifying clearly the reasons for study. List questions either on the chalkboard or on a study-guide worksheet. For a teacher to say, "Read the next chapter and be ready to answer questions on it" is, for almost any student, a vague and almost useless kind of direction.

Helping the students set goals regarding the time needed to accomplish the study task. Suggest, for instance, "Try to get the first five problems solved in class, and then you can continue and finish the rest at home." Remember, however, that variation in student ability will mean that much more will be

accomplished by some than others. Nevertheless, all students can be taught to make efficient use of the study time provided.

When study time is offered in class, *individual* supervision should be provided. While the students are studying in class, the teacher should:

1. Walk around the room to observe study habits.
2. Discuss with individual students any study problems that arise.
3. Watch how student work is progressing. The teacher may find it advisable to call the attention of the whole class to some particularly difficult passage or interesting point that should not be missed. He will want to see that full advantage is being taken of the resources that are available in school but not at home, such as the room encyclopedia, the instructional facilities of a laboratory or media center.
4. Ask students about their progress. The teacher should not wait for unfinished or consistently poor work to indicate a trouble spot.
5. Note different ability levels. All students do not need, and should not have, the same home-study assignments.
6. Be alert to class activity. By anticipating difficulties, observing behavior, and providing a sense of "positive momentum," the teacher can contribute to a working atmosphere. The teacher should be careful to see that he observes his own behavior. He should see that *he himself* does not create disturbances in the orderly, working atmosphere. He must be sure that he does not expect students to use materials which they have not been asked to bring to class or which are not available in the classroom.

Time for study should be carefully provided for in the overall plan, but it is important to vary the daily schedule enough so that students remain alert and interested. Establishing a weekly planning session will aid the class in allocating needed class time for study; and remember that the result of these joint planning sessions should be a program that allows for the different rates of progress that will be made by different classes over similar material and that permits adjustments to varying student interests. It is as unwise to have an inflexible rule of "20 minutes every period for in-class study" as it is to have no plan at all for helping students to develop study skills.

Out-of-Class Study

All school-learning experiences have as their purpose the transference of behavior to life outside the classroom. If there is to be a transference, what happens in the classroom must be relevant, vital, and hopefully exciting. If students are asked to work outside the classroom on assignments, then such home-work must be an outgrowth of that relevant, vital, exciting classroom experience. Countless experienced teachers avow that homework has meaning only when it is an extension of something that makes sense in the classroom.

What Homework Is of Any Worth?

Busywork—in or out of the classroom—is destructive; it develops animosity toward schoolwork in general and destroys student confidence in the teacher's values. The only homework that is of any worth, then, is homework that is genuinely learning work—work that extends meaning and offers reward on its own merits.

At its best, homework should be "tailor-made for the student, the class, the subject and the occasion."³ Realistically, such an accomplishment is impossible when teachers deal with groups of 30 or more students. To do so would involve countless hours of planning and preparation. It is possible, though, to arrange homework assignments that are sufficiently flexible for students to adopt study and materials to their own needs and interests. Choice of approach, opportunity to practice a needed skill or review an area of weakness, and the possibility of selecting an alternate assignment can encourage self-awareness and direction as well as creative solutions. Homework that can be accomplished in a reasonable amount of time will allow students a sense of proportion and assure them that the teacher is aware that out-of-class work is assigned in other subjects besides his own.

Homework of worth is also that which allows the teacher to maintain a gauge of student development. Out-of-class work that will indicate how successfully students are perfecting study skills and to what extent they are able to make relationships, locate and utilize materials, and work without supervision will all enable the teacher to provide individualized instruction and allow maximum personal development.

Assignments That Students Will Do

If a student sees worth in an assignment, he will do it. It is that simple. Certainly, most students will "complete" assignments—whether mechanically, or by copying or by sharing in a division of labor with others—in order to stay within the bounds of safety. But the assignment in which students become involved and from which they learn is the one for which they see a reason. The teacher can help students find a reason for out-of-class work by the nature of his assignments and through discussion that helps them to understand the nature and purpose of those assignments. Group or committee assignments; interviews; on-the-spot observations; the use of television, radio, magazines, newspapers, community resources; observing a duck pond; attendance at public gatherings; interviewing store managers or relatives: all these possess endless opportunities for assignments that are rich in learning experiences. All avoid the standard, lackluster approach of simply reading, or answering questions, from a textbook.

In addition to short-term homework, long-range assignments can be beneficial

³ Robert J. Shockley, *Using Homework as a Teaching Tool*. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Teachers Practical Press, distributed by Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1964.

and challenging because they demand planning and budgeting of time and allow an opportunity for reflective thinking. With this type of assignment, in-class study time permits the teacher to assist students in planning and allotting time out of class to do most of the work. This planning will help minimize home situations such as these:

"I have to finish reading *Moby Dick* by tomorrow. Do we have a copy?"

"I have to read *Moby Dick* by tomorrow. Where's that book called *100 Best Plots*?"

"I have to write 500 words on being the sole survivor after a nuclear explosion. What'll I say, Mom?"

"I have to get my Science Fair project in by tomorrow. Any ideas?"

"I have to build a model of the Parthenon by tomorrow. Do we have any sugar cubes?"

When homework is assigned, it is extremely important that it be examined or checked in some way by the teacher.

There were many things about the worst teacher I ever had that make him stick out in my mind. Among the most hateful was the way class was conducted. Every day he put us through a new lesson from the textbook, told us to begin the exercises at the end and be ready to hand them in the next day. He never corrected that homework and never made any remark about it, but we still had to turn the junk in every day.

Students quickly resent homework that is ignored in class; eventually, they either stop doing such work, correctly assuming it isn't important, or they resort to cheating in order to have something to hand in.

For both in- and out-of-class assignments, it is necessary for teachers to consider beforehand what weight they will give to content and form. Should a student be judged on his ability to conform to a teacher's predetermined style of presentation or on the substance of his work? Do teachers foster unreasonable conformity when they say, "Do it this way"? Is creativity and perceptive thinking stifled by such tactics? How would form-minded teachers have evaluated the work of James Joyce, e. e. cummings, or Albert Einstein?

Junior- versus Senior-high-school Homework

Homework assignments, as all others, must alter with the ability, interest, maturity, and achievement of students. Therefore, tasks set for students must undergo change—in breadth and depth—from junior to senior high school. For many students there is genuine "culture shock" in going to junior high school—with its change of classes, many teachers, and superemphasis on grades in many school systems. Therefore, whatever junior-high students are asked to do at home should be planned with extreme care and should be introduced gradually. Emphasis on study skills is essential and all outside assignments must capitalize on

such skills if they are to be genuinely effective. Variety is also important; most students in the electronic age have short attention spans, junior-high-school students especially so. Alternation of tasks, new approaches, change of emphasis, and the involvement of hands as well as brains will do much to encourage interest and learning.

Unquestionably, homework must be as interesting and relevant to senior-high-school students as it is to younger ones. But as students mature—intellectually as well as emotionally—they should be confronted with tasks that go deeper and broader in their demands. Increasingly, assignments should allow students to consider the problems of daily existence which most of them will face on their own in all-too-short a time. Assignments of this kind may be instrumental in reducing the alarming number of drop-outs. While certain skills of study and performance will need repeated practice, consideration of the controversial and universal aspects of all subject areas is essential if high-school students are to become enlightened, active citizens. Studying the French or American revolutions is important, of course, but can teachers and students afford to overlook the fact that today they are living in what may eventually be regarded as one of the great revolutionary periods in history? Discussing the honesty of Jean Valjean in *Les Misérables* is necessary, but what about the honesty of taking examinations, completing income tax returns, and adhering to traffic regulations? Knowing the functions of the body is important, but can the ethics and morality of organ transplants be ignored?

How Much and How Often?

Teachers should think twice about the nature and amount of homework and about coordinating their assignments with other teachers. How would they like walking home with 10 or 15 pounds of books or balancing them on a crowded bus, as many students are forced to do?

With the exception of long-range assignments, it is educational suicide to give homework over weekends, holidays, or on nights of—or before—important school activities. The assignment will be done hurriedly (if at all), in which case the entire exercise is pointless. Regardless of its meaning, homework in these circumstances has the same effect as busywork.

Developing Home-study Skills

Although the circumstances of the classroom largely control the student's use of time while he is there, he also needs guidance in his use of out-of-class study time. Discussion of how students utilize their time may help dramatize its importance. Asking a student to keep a time record of his activities for a week, translated into a graph, will illustrate what percentage of his time he gives to recreation, employment, "loafing," and study. When relationships are drawn between what the graph relates and an individual's success in school and his goals beyond, he may be able to determine that, as his application to study increases, so

probably will his learning. Hopefully, too, students will see clearly from their own experiences, the necessity of budgeting time. Encouraging college-bound high-school students to recognize that wise use of time is essential to college success should benefit them immediately as well as ultimately. The other students need similar help in guiding them to remain in school long enough to earn a high-school diploma.

The teacher will also have to discuss with students other conditions that are essential for efficient home study. These are:

Reviewing work in class to see what, if any, difficulties may be encountered at home and checking with the teacher for help in these areas.

Arranging a specific time and place at home for uninterrupted study. This is often not easy and may even be impossible for young people who live in crowded or disorganized homes. It is not infrequent to find young people who, of necessity, are employed for many hours a week, or whose responsibilities in the home are physically exhausting. Others live in situations of emotional havoc. These students simply may not be able to do home assignments. To penalize them is not simply petty: it is inhumane.

Reviewing the importance of learning habits, of individual concentration and responsibility for one's own learning tasks, and relating of this to later vocational needs.

Providing a period in class for students to exchange experiences about the methods of study they find most helpful, so that students can help one another. Advice from a peer is often more acceptable than advice from a teacher or another adult.

Home Environment

Home environment plays a significant role in the success students have with homework. Generally speaking, parents in comfortable suburban communities will favor, and even insist on homework, usually because they mistakenly believe that a great deal of it is a sign of true teaching and that mastery of content thus obtained will aid in college admission. There is no evidence to prove this. There is evidence, however, that parents in these situations are so eager for their children's success that they will actually do partial or entire assignments for them.

Members of ghettos or other low socioeconomic communities also usually take homework as an indication of good teaching. In fact, they may resent that students are not given homework, interpreting this as a sign that the teacher believes their children are incapable of doing it. *Disadvantaged parents are just as eager for their children to succeed as are affluent ones.* The problem of helping their children, however, is often different from that of parents of comfortable means. They simply do not know how to help their children. They may not understand that study space and materials are essential and they may be financially unable to provide them; they do not know how to help their children perfect study skills; and they may not be able to do the assignments themselves. Whether he serves affluent, or disadvantaged, students a teacher will want to work with

parents to help them understand the goals and procedures of the classroom, homework included. His job will be to help parents see that homework for the sake of homework is destructive; he will also want to have parents understand that an absence of homework does not mean "nothing is going on in that school." Some avenues for this communication between teacher and parents might include PTA meetings, letters to parents, telephone and in-school conferences, and home visits.

Developing Study Skills in Reading

In addition to the reading suggestions in Chapter 5, it is important to the development of study skills that each subject teacher assist his students in how to use those particular printed materials that are appropriate. The significance and value of the other parts of a book—title page, copyright, table of contents, preface, appendix, glossary, and index—in addition to, and relation to, the main body of the book are essential. Practical exercises in using and evaluating these sections will make the use of text and reference books effective learning tools. Review or instruction in the use of subject-related resources will ensure some familiarity with content and use of important aids that students will be expected to employ on their own. Reading materials with an eye to unit headings, chapter headings, and subheadings will encourage students to see a wholeness, a framework, in the material at hand. Training is necessary, also, in helping students learn how to get clues from italics, bold-face printings, and color markings as well as in being alert to such words as "Review," "Summary" and "Conclusion."

The SQ3R Technique

The SQ3R technique of reading is helpful for focusing students' attention on developmental steps in studying. The SQ3R technique uses the following approach:

Survey: Glance through the assignment, observing main headings, illustrated material and captions, and any editorial techniques, such as italics. Skim the content of the first and last paragraphs in each section.

Question: Turn each heading and subheading into a question. For example, the heading, "Use of the Carriage Return Lever," in a typing manual can be rephrased to "What are the uses of the carriage return lever?" or "How may I use the carriage return lever?"

Read: Using the purposes established in the questions, read to obtain the desired information.

Recite and Review: When reading is completed, demonstrate in some way that understanding has taken place. This may mean performing a skill, restating the material as it is, or putting the material into one's own words. Paraphrasing is especially helpful in certain situations where one is reading for information. Making brief notes as each section is read may be helpful.

It is necessary to review in an expanded way when an entire chapter, section, or

work is completed. Look again at the major divisions and think about them, trying to see a connection between them and the major topic under which they fall. Continue this process through minor divisions. Use whatever notes have been made, checking to be sure that they are in order of development.

Not only is the SQ3R technique effective, but it also is timesaving and orderly.

Other Study Techniques

Other techniques that need attention in individual subjects are outlining (but don't assign students the stultifying job of outlining chapters in a book!), organization and presentation of oral reports, the specific form for written assignments, and the use of the library for obtaining and using subject-related materials.

Notetaking is an important skill that can be practiced in all subject areas. Whether the notes are made from written or oral sources (the classroom included), students should be encouraged to record only significant information—in their own words and in capsule form. Students should also be helped to see the importance of a consistent form of notetaking in all their classes and study work. If direct quotation is made, it is necessary to be exact, to use quotation marks for the excerpt and to record the source completely. All notes should be dated, and when information comes from a written source, it should include the author's name, the title, publisher, copyright date, and page number.

Exercises in this skill, as well as in the skill of translating note material into spoken and written reports should also be handled according to the specific needs of the subject and the particular operation of the class.

Preparing for and Taking Tests

The following is an outline of how one teacher develops skill in test-taking:

1. Before the test:
 - a. Review
 - b. Re-read
 - c. Relax
 - d. Rest
2. Take the test with a calm, realistic attitude. Be on time. Take the proper materials with you.
3. Survey the entire test before you begin. Make notes if permitted.
4. Do the easiest questions first. Skip anything that is difficult until you have completed all other items.
5. During the test, stop periodically (if it is long) and relax: close your eyes, breathe deeply, consciously work to relieve tension.

Students will develop trust in the teacher and skill in testing if, at the beginning of the year, they are provided with a sample test or two preceding the first one that counts. They should also understand the teacher's approach to marking and grading before they are exposed to a test "for keeps."

RECOMMENDED READING

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Individual Differences

*difficult, discouraging,
desirable*

12

All students are unique, but some are more unique than others. This may sound like the nonsensical comment, "That is a round circle; but this circle is more round." The word "circle" includes the concept of roundness. And "unique" includes the concept of differences.

However, when we talk about human beings, as against circles, it must be admitted that, while no person is exactly like anyone else, ever, there are some people who do differ to a much greater extent in some way or other from most people. Among these are, obviously, those with physical handicaps: the blind, the deaf, the crippled, or those with some other physical impairment. More subtle, but equally significant, differences are those which affect intellectual functioning. The very slow, who find any intellectual task next to impossible are very different people from those who can cope with the expected intellectual tasks of their peers; so, also, are the people who are tremendously bright, whose intellectual capacity is so much greater than their associates that they are "different." There are those who are distinctively creative. There are those, too, who are so hurt in early life—by family difficulties, by extreme poverty and malnutrition, by neglect or rejection or by sadistic parents—that their emotional responses rarely coincide with the generally expected reactions of people of the same age.

All these students are "different." Most of them come to school, and many of

them will be in the average secondary-school classroom at some time. The teacher, therefore, not only must be equipped with a repertoire of skills and insights to understand and deal with the educational problems of students within the "normal range" (whatever that is), but he also must have the skills and understandings to cope with those who differ.

In this chapter, some of the kinds of problems created by the previously named differences, and some of the ways teachers can deal with them, will be discussed. It must be remembered, as a caution, that there is a vast and growing literature on the different, or exceptional, student. What can be presented here is only an introduction. The teacher would be well advised to look further into the literature of the exceptional student, particularly if there are many such in the classes he teaches. All that can be done within the short space allotted in this book is to sensitize the future teacher to the many facets of the problem of the "different" adolescent so that his own actions do not add more burdens to an already troubled, or troubling, individual.

What It Feels like To Be Different

One can only understand how a very different youngster behaves when one knows how he feels about his "difference." It is often his feeling about himself that makes him act as he does. Fortunately, research is available which describes the psychological climate in which this youth may live.¹

Students who deviate markedly from the norm feel conspicuous. If the student is exceptionally bright, exceptionally slow, or is markedly behind in his school performance, he feels that everyone else is aware of his difference. Consequently, these students are often either very aggressive, as though to say, "I'll tell you all about myself before you can find out"; or very shy and retiring, as though trying to shrink into a psychological corner where nobody can really see them. In either case, the shyness or aggression should receive minimal reaction from the teacher. Accepting differences does not mean one should overreact to them and thus make the "different" student feel even more conspicuous.

Individuals who are different from the majority are more likely to be sensitive than the average. Even the very dull student is likely to respond in an unexpected way to what he considers undue attention.

This heightened sensitivity is also to be found among students from minority groups. In many ways those with special problems react very much like individuals in a minority group. The teacher, aware of this feeling on the part of the student, often overreacts. In the same way, the white teacher may be too kind to a black student in an attempt to show that he does not really bear the student any prejudice. Yet this excessive kindness is not accepted by the person toward whom it is directed. Another parallel illustration may be seen in a study of injured veterans. The research showed in part that the injured individual wanted most of all to have others face his injuries realistically. If he were blind or crippled,

¹ Erving Goffman, *Stigma*. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice Hall, Inc., 1965.

he did not want others to ignore this condition, but neither did he want pity because he was handicapped.²

Any kind of exceptional endowment has significant repercussions in the whole life of the student. Both very bright and very dull students pose special problems to their own families. Often these students have been overprotected by their parents, who have sought to smooth the path for them. This sort of treatment may be all very well in the home, but the total effect on the individual is to keep him a child far longer than his classmates.

At the other extreme are those young people whose parents have found such "differences" more of an irritant than anything else. Unquestionably, these students are more trouble at home. Some parents respond by rejecting and neglecting them. This in turn may result in serious personality repercussions in the slow learner.³

The "visibility" of differences is probably more apt to produce heightened sensitivity than are differences that one can hide. A bright child can "act dumb" (as many bright girls do!), but the student with a deformed hand cannot hide this defect. The more visible the defect, and the more intense the social significance attached to it, the more sensitive will the individual be, and his behavior will reflect this added sensitivity.

The goals for the normal child may not seem appropriate to exceptionally fast or exceptionally slow students. The teacher who suggests life choices that presume a normal endowment will sometimes be perplexed because some students react so negatively to what appear to be very reasonable aspirations. Yet the rationale of the reaction is clear. These aspirations are felt to be either completely beyond their scope or beneath their abilities. The very superior student, for example, may scorn what appears to be very low-level ambitions. The motivation of these students is directly affected by goal-setting. Thus, the teacher who has exceptional students should study them intensively as individuals to help them set goals they can accept as meaningful and reasonable.

The Educational Situation of Slow and Fast Learners

The more complete a representation there is of any group of people, the more "normally" are their achievements distributed. If schools retain all of a given age group, there will be achievement all the way from very low to very high. There is no way to eliminate this range unless the people who rank very high or very low are eliminated. Whether it is playing a violin, throwing a football, or reading a book, all people simply cannot make the same progress in the same amount of time. Some will take less time; some will take more. Even with this tolerance, some may never reach the heights others climb quickly.

² Army Medical Research and Development Board, *Social Psychological Rehabilitation of the Physically Handicapped: Adjustment to Misfortune*. Washington, D.C.: Office of the Surgeon General, War Department, 1948.

³ National Society for the Study of Education, "Parents' Problems with Exceptional Children" In *The Education of Exceptional Children*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1950. (Forty-ninth Yearbook, Part II).

As a beginning teacher, you might think of your own capacities. Where does your greatest weakness lie? In physical dexterity? In the fine arts? Now think of some fellow student teacher who is very skilled in the area where you are weak. Could you ever, no matter how hard you tried, reach the same degree of proficiency?

If all children are retained in school, two choices are open: (1) to require that all children attain the same minimal degree of proficiency in the same amount of time, retaining for additional time those who cannot attain this standard; or (2) to expect differences in achievement and gear instruction to these differences while keeping students of the same age together for various general activities.

In general, American elementary schools follow the second alternative. This practice has been hotly assailed but just as warmly defended. Whatever the arguments advanced, it is highly unlikely that the procedure will soon be changed. Thus the beginning teacher can expect varying achievement at the same grade level.

Some selection occurs, of course. The academic course often intimidates the slower students, so that they choose the commercial, shop, or "general" courses of study. The bright students gravitate toward college-preparatory courses. Self-selection does not always work as completely as one might wish, however. Some students are doggedly enrolled in a college-preparatory curriculum when their capacities are far below those required for success. And in the smaller high schools, where there are neither sufficient students nor enough teachers to establish separate courses of study, this kind of selection cannot occur.

To Group or Not To Group

One of the issues most bitterly debated in educational circles is that of grouping secondary students by ability. The arguments on either side are persuasive, depending on one's bias. Research, although massive, does not provide a clear-cut answer; personal feelings have thus had relatively free rein in determining school policy.

At one extreme of the discussion, there is virtual agreement. Students with very low IQ's can hardly work in the regular high-school atmosphere. Usually such children have been put in special classes during their elementary years, and with special teachers and equipment have been given as much instruction as they can comprehend. What is to happen to them after they reach the equivalent of eighth grade in chronological years is not so clear. Few school systems make provision for students of secondary-school age who have a real mental deficiency. Similarly, young people with marked physical handicaps are rarely found in the regular classroom. Blind, deaf, spastic, brain-damaged, or extremely crippled youth are taught either at home or in special schools or classes.

What is found in the regular classroom are all the rest of the young people. The IQ range may be from 70 to 165 plus. The reading range may be from near-illiteracy to mature reading ability—and all in one class. It is no exaggeration

to say that at any given time a tenth-grade teacher may be teaching youngsters whose intellectual development and concomitant skills range from fifth grade to the college level.⁴

Whether the teacher is aware of it or not, attitudes toward those who will perform better, as against those from whom one does not expect special aptitude, will be conveyed to students. An ingenious research study showed that teachers, without any obvious overt signs of paying special attention to certain students, actually did encourage the progress of students (selected at random) who had been supposedly identified as "late bloomers."⁵ The findings indicate that without the teachers' even being aware of it, they did produce unexpected growth in the specially identified students. Since these students were actually picked at random, there was nothing in their previous record to indicate that they would show any exceptional improvement. Yet they did. One can only conclude that it was the teachers' expectations that made the difference.

Reports such as this, and other research on grouping, make one seriously question the kinds of grouping practices which label one group "smart" and another group "dumb." The group that is expected to be smart will perform as expected in most instances; the group that is told it is not doing well, will live up to such expectations and produce less adequate work. While it is undoubtedly true that human abilities range themselves along a continuum from very limited intellectual capacity to rare and extraordinary abilities, it is also true that tests or measures to identify one group from another are not reliable measures of the real differences in individual human beings. A person who "tests" poorly may have a test phobia or lack the necessary motivation and drive to demonstrate good performance. It was found, for instance, that when promised rewards that fitted with their value system, children who previously did poorly on tests could do a great deal better.⁶

It has been found, too, that boys perform less well under stress, so that the anxiety-laden test situation would tend to depress the scores of boys as a group.⁷ Finally, middle-class prodding and the incidental, but important, things which middle-class children pick up from their verbally and culturally richer environment give them a major advantage in tests that measure these kinds of attributes, rather than innate ability, whatever that may be. Time and again, research has shown a close correlation between socioeconomic status and school grouping practices: the "better class" of student comes from the "better-class" home. All

⁴ Charles W. Telford and James W. Sawrey, *The Exceptional Individual*. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1967. Chapter 1.

⁵ Robert Rosenthal and Lenore Jacobson, *Pygmalion in the Classroom*. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1968; and Peter Guinbert, and Carol Guinbert, "The Teachers as Pygmalion: Comments on the Psychology of Expectation," *The Urban Review*, 3, September 1968, 21-25.

⁶ Allison Davis, *Social Class Influences upon Learning*. Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1948.

⁷ Seymour B. Sarason and others, *Anxiety in Elementary School Children*. New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1960.

these factors create doubt about ability grouping based on test results or even teacher appraisal.

There are differences other than intellectual. One seems to be talking about intellectual differences only when he talks about homogeneous versus heterogeneous classrooms. Yet this is only one of the important differences among people. Some people are very talented musically; should they be in special classes in English and mathematics? What about people with superb gifts in art and design? Isn't this a good basis for separation? Obviously, no one would suggest that either of these talents is an adequate basis for separate classes in *all* subjects. But there are special classes for the musically and artistically gifted. Thus, such differences can be expressed—through choice of subject matter. In the same way, one can talk sensibly about marked differences in intellectual competence. The kinds of choices which are provided for the student body do, in themselves, tend to reduce heterogeneity. Obviously, those without special mathematical aptitude are not going to take trigonometry. Nor will the artistically illiterate sign up for advanced advertising art.

Thus the typical system of electives, although far from perfect in its operation, does tend to make secondary-school classrooms progressively more homogeneous. In the basic courses, those required of all students, the controversy still exists. Why shouldn't the academic, college-preparatory students be in English IV together, instead of taking their advanced English with the slow and the mediocre? In some schools this is done; the course of study chosen may automatically place a student in all classes with those who have a similar vocational goal. All the commercial students are assigned to the same English or social studies classes. All vocational students likewise take their required vocational courses together.

The limitations, as well as the advantages, of this kind of organization have been argued in the professional literature. Some teachers feel that the separation makes the academic students into snobs while the vocational, commercial, and general students feel socially inferior. "Doesn't the same thing happen in a mixed classroom?" ask the proponents.

"But it doesn't have to," is the answering argument.

School systems vary, and the practice will be on one or the other side of this argument. But the issues are not clear-cut; nor are the alternatives completely satisfactory.

One question prospective teachers should ask themselves is: "Have I ever been placed in a 'slow' group? If not, do I know what it feels like to be in such a group?"

In observing school grouping practices, one should note what racial or ethnic groups tend to be in the "top" or "bottom" groups. Because of an inheritance of inadequate schooling, plus disproportionate clustering in inner-city slums, Negro youngsters are apt to be placed in slow sections in many schools. Teachers often perceive Negro students as less able, when test results may be inconclusive or even nonexistent. In the Washington, D.C. schools in the mid 1960s, for in-

stance, most of the students in the basic, or lowest track, were Negro. Supposedly this was the result of screening on a variety of IQ tests. Investigation showed that a majority of these students had never been tested. Were they so grouped because they just "looked dumb"?—or perhaps because they "talked poorly"? Similarly, students from bilingual backgrounds—Cuban, Mexican-American, Puerto-Rican—are often to be found in greater proportion in lower tracks.⁸ The student who begins with a deficit, whether it is real or in the eye of the beholder, is then labeled as a person with less ability, given less chance to be challenged by able or more culturally sophisticated students, and doomed, therefore, to a lifetime at the bottom of the heap.

The overgrading of girls which is discussed in Chapter 14, must be guarded against in any system. Where homogeneous grouping is practiced, there are almost invariably more girls in the top sections and more boys in the lower sections, yet no one would argue that boys are on the whole more stupid than girls. Since boys are less obedient and passive, their previous school records may be poor because they reflect "discipline" problems, which are in reality a testing of authority. Thus, recognizing the behavioral differences in school between boys and girls and the other elements that downgrade boys, schools are beginning to be more wary of group labeling. Many persons of talent are probably defeated by such a system, and their talent is either distorted into illegal activities or permitted to atrophy from disuse. The injustice of such programs has exacerbated intergroup relations throughout the country.⁹

What are some alternatives? Some school systems have abandoned mass ability testing as it now exists, waiting for more adequate measures of potential to be developed. Through trial and error, then, students and teachers work together to try to assess each student's potential. Since no one is labeled "best," "good," or "not good," each student, by trying himself out against others, may find he has strengths and motivations not otherwise apparent.

The nongraded secondary school, which will be discussed as one of the trends for the future in Chapter 18, is designed so that each student is more able to find his own level of work in various subject areas, and progress at his own pace through the educational forest. Eliminating very small high schools where students have very few choices also helps provide several adequate pathways for success, rather than merely limited ones.

The forces favoring ability-grouping are formidable, however. Many are based on class lines: the upward-mobile and the middle-class parent resists classification (or lack of it) that would open doors to more students, and also thus open competition with his own children to more contenders. The elitist concept of the role of education—that the schools should do the best job for the very able although providing for "those others"—reinforces grouping-practices.

Antagonism to school desegregation has also in a number of instances resulted

⁸ Christina Tree, "Grouping Pupils in New York City," *The Urban Review*, 3, September 1968, 8-15.

⁹ Richard Lova, "Special Education Classes, Barrier to Mexican Americans?" *Civil Rights Digest*, 1, Fall 1968, 36-39.

in resegregation in the schools by placing most of the Negro students in "slow" or special sections, while most of the white students are placed in advanced or "better" sections. Such a practice is bound to cause resentment and anger, and is one of the school's contributions, unfortunately, to social unrest and social disorganization. Yet fears of racial mixing may override other considerations in the minds of the public, and in the practices of some educators as well.

While newer procedures and new sensitivity to individual students may produce better solutions than ability-grouping, prospective teachers must be prepared to deal with groups of mostly "slow" students, or mostly able students, as well as to work with groups varying greatly in ability, interest, and motivation.

Teaching the Slow Learner

Today, more young people stay in school for a longer period of time than ever before. As a result, there has been growing concern for those who are intellectually unable to meet the same standards in the same period of time, no matter how hard they try.

Elementary schools usually permit all children to move ahead with their age-group, even if they are demonstrably below their peers in school achievement. It is unwise, the argument goes, to keep a big, bulky adolescent with third-graders just because he has not learned to read beyond this level.

One can discuss the merits and failings of this point of view. But the consequences result in classrooms where some members cannot spell words more difficult than cat or dog and some are unable to remember a simple set of directions, to file things alphabetically, to do simple arithmetic.

It must be remembered that some students are slow learners because of factors other than limited intellectual capacity.

Janice was accepted by her teachers, her classmates, and her family as being not very bright. She seemed to have trouble with her schoolwork; could not read very well; and, in general, seemed destined for routine jobs. About the middle of her high-school career one teacher, after observing her rather closely, suggested that her eyes be tested. It was found that she was very nearsighted. Glasses were given her, and Janice found that she could read the blackboard for the first time. Moreover, she could read her books without tiring quickly. Her problems did not disappear overnight, but by graduation she was a better-than-average student.

A person with poor hearing or eyesight may not really be aware he has a defect. He may assume that everyone sees the world as slightly fuzzy just as he does, or he may think most people don't hear everything, either. One student, when given a hearing aid for the first time cried out, "Why, birds really do sing!" In the case of color-blindness, which affects many more boys than girls, an inability to select the right color may not be stupidity or insolence, but a genuine lack of perceptual discrimination.

Identifying the Slow Learner

There is a stereotype of the very dull: the student whose face looks empty, with no spark of life in his expression. He rarely responds to the moods of the class. When other youngsters are laughing at a joke, the dull student has not understood what it was all about. He is the last one to open his book, has usually forgotten pencil and paper, usually does not know the assignment, and cannot follow the teacher's directions.

However, this dull look is not so typical as generally believed. The slow learner can often be a very happy, gay, extroverted person. His sense of the world is that it is a relatively simple, pleasant place. He may be less worried than other students because he understands fewer of the consequences of his own actions. What appears to be irresponsibility may actually be a more restricted view of the world. Teachers often find that when classroom tasks are appropriate to their abilities, slow learners can be the happiest, most pleasant, best-adjusted students in the class. Since most teachers tend to be concerned about the larger world and aware of the many problems that life presents, such attitudes may seem out of place and most unnatural to them. Some teachers may go so far as to try to make these happy youngsters worried and anxious, since they feel that it is not "normal" for students not to care about the future. These teachers would do better to try to understand the differences between slow learners and themselves rather than to try to remake the students.

The slow-learning student is often very responsive to personal attention. If treated with kindness, he freely responds with greater effort in school tasks.

Mary Ann and her older sister, Alice, were in the same United States history class. The teacher discovered the reason for this when she checked the records. Although there was a three-year age difference between the two girls, Alice had been retained two years in elementary school. Now she was barely able to keep up with her younger sister. "It must be hard enough to be in the same grade with her younger sister," thought the teacher, "without the added torture of being in the same class."

But this was a small rural high school and there just wasn't any other class for Alice. She was far from a good student. She rarely did her homework. She giggled and teased the boys near her. The teacher scolded, frowned, berated. Nothing worked. One day the teacher, glancing up, saw Alice scowling at her as usual. Instead of returning the frown, the teacher smiled—a warm, friendly smile. Alice seemed completely taken aback, but weakly smiled in return. She went back to work, too. From that day the teacher found it easy to smile at Alice. And Alice, although not becoming a model pupil overnight, was more amenable to requests and generally more cooperative.

Most teachers have had little, if any, close contact with people of average or below-normal mental processes. By the very selection of the teaching profession, by his broad education, the teacher has put himself in a "superior" group of in-

dividuals. Probably it is only with people of similar advantages that he has associated closely for many years. It is therefore often extremely difficult for the teacher to grasp the way in which the average or below-average mind learns.

Sometimes emotional troubles impede learning. Conflict in the home or poor adjustment to age-mates makes the world so unpleasant or so disturbing that the student cannot, no matter how hard he tries, take in very much of the material of the classroom. Sometimes students have had some bitter experience with failure and, rather than feel that terror again, refuse to take an active role in the classroom. Thus, they are actually *afraid* to learn, rather than incapable of it.

Although both physical and emotional factors may make a normally endowed child appear to be a slow learner, here the special concern is with those students who really do have limited learning capacities. How can these students be detected? And what can be done to improve their opportunities to learn?

True, the slow learner actually puts facts together differently, generalizes differently, thinks differently. He can retain few details, few facts. He remembers attitudes, feelings, and emotions more accurately than data. He may be able to report his reactions, but has little insight into why he responded as he did. Abstractions are difficult for him; he works from one concrete situation to another concrete situation, but cannot very often make the generalized connection between them.

Precautions in Teaching Slow Learners

Intelligence has many facets. A student who is very creative in writing may be very slow in arithmetical reasoning. Another student, who responds very well to the orderly sequence of material in a science class, may become confused when asked to see relationships in sociological data. The teacher must exercise great care in assuming that the slow-learning student in his class is a slow student in all classes. Although this assumption is true of many of the slow students, it must not be applied indiscriminately to all. In any classroom there should be opportunities for all types of abilities to be rewarded, as well as for all levels of abilities to succeed.

Frequently the teacher who identifies a slow-learning student will suggest that he be given a chance to do shopwork, or be placed in clerical and business training classes, or be put in music and art courses. The teachers of these fields are likely to begin to feel that their classes are a dumping ground for the misfits or the stupid leftovers of the school. This method of dealing with slow students is a mistake for two reasons.

First, this policy assumes that the manual arts, or even the fine arts, require less native ability than other academic courses. Actually, it takes a high degree of a rather special kind of intelligence to make a good secretary, a good mechanic, a good draftsman. The lack of verbal skill does not necessarily mean that the slow student will be more interested in less verbal areas. It is untenable to assume that because a student does poorly in reading, he will be interested and do well in mechanical tasks.

Second, if the slow learners are moved completely into the so-called vocational courses, they are prevented from having as broad a cultural background as those with greater verbal ability. The slower student is more likely to run into conflict with society than other students simply because it is so difficult for him to understand its complexities. It is therefore *more important*, rather than less, that he be given a full share of education in the basic courses that lead to social understanding.

The Background of the Slow Learner

It is tragic, but true, that for many of the slower students, school has become a place of terror, or boredom, or cruelty, or painful embarrassment, or all of these. These students have known failure before; usually they started falling behind early in their elementary-school career. For reasons not yet understood by researchers, there are more boys than girls classified as mentally retarded.

Several sources are available for gaining insight into the background of the slow student. Consultation with his previous teachers often turns up valuable information, and school records may show where the inability to progress at the expected rate first appeared. Interviews with the student, of course, should prove an important source of information. (The procedure for student interviews is described in Chapter 17.)

The teacher should indicate genuine interest in the student's problems. At no time should the teacher show disappointment, disapproval, or censure. Understanding and accepting the student's report of his reasons for failure is a prerequisite to gaining insight into the true cause. Probably the student will have his own protective explanations for his failure, built on a variety of possibly spurious rationalizations, to keep him from facing damaging truth. The teacher should not take this self-protection away. Rather, he should accept the student's explanation and, from there, work on the recognition of a learning problem that the teacher and the student together can solve.

The Slow Learner in the Heterogeneous Class

The following suggestions are for teachers who have classes with a wide range of ability levels.

Try to have the slow learner become as much a part of class activities as possible. Whenever the slow learner can make a contribution to any aspect of the class work, he should be given the opportunity to do so. He can run many errands, perform many clerical and other routine tasks around the room, be scorekeeper for review games, act as monitor, timekeeper, shelf-straightener.

Make available special materials for the slow learner. Simplified texts, special readings, shorter problems, should be prepared ahead of time by the teacher for the slower student. It is not enough to keep him out of mischief; he also should be helped to learn.

This point needs special emphasis. Since so much of classroom work requires

some reading facility, the slow learner, or the student who has not learned to read very well and is therefore often considered a slow learner, needs particular help and attention. Special materials geared to lower reading levels are beginning to appear for secondary-school students. Professional reference books and journals often have reviews of such material. The librarian or the curriculum coordinator of the school may be able to help find material.

Provide a variety of learning activities. This is essential in any classroom, but it is particularly important in one where the range of talents and skills is great. All students cannot learn through one channel. An activity that gives one student a chance to learn may be of no help to another. The slow learner especially, needs to work at a somewhat more concrete level than the rest of the class. Community resources, role-playing, and audiovisual materials will help him gain a firmer grasp of the abstract.

Develop group work in the classroom. The teacher will want to distribute the slow students among others who can learn at the expected rate. In the groups those who are slow can learn through listening to their classmates and observing their handling of the material. Other students are good, and often patient, teachers when given a chance to help. Even though the slower ones may appear to be silent onlookers in a group, they often show that they, too, have grasped the material at hand.

Provide an atmosphere of sympathetic understanding. Too often the busy teacher becomes impatient and overcritical of the slow learner, who never seems to get the point, who always has to ask the question that was just answered. The teacher must constantly remember the handicap that restricts such students and treat them with consistent patience and good humor.

Have some of the more able students work as coaches or tutors with the slower students. Used judiciously, this procedure makes the most of the talents of both very fast and very slow students and takes some of the burden of individual instruction off the teacher's shoulders. At the same time it provides a chance for the slow learner to keep up with the class.

Discuss the student's progress with him as often as possible, pointing out his strengths and being realistic about his weaknesses. Where grading is on an absolute level of achievement, it is important to cushion for the slow student the inevitable low grade. This can best be accomplished by individual conferences.

Plan to give, from time to time, a test or examination that is designed to give the slow learner a chance to get a good grade. Despite our position that current grading practices are inherently unfair and inadequate, the teacher still must face giving grades. He can boost the morale of the slower students by including easy questions in tests or some very obvious problems on the study sheet.

I hadn't really understood what it meant to be a person like Susan. I knew that she wasn't very bright, but she was quiet and docile and really no bother. One day I gave a test that I thought would be easy. I had really been concerned about class morale and had remembered that sometimes a class gets a lift when

everyone does get a good mark on a test after a series of pretty tough quizzes. But I wasn't prepared for Susan's reaction when I returned the papers. She looked at her paper, puzzled. Then she flushed and put it away. It had, I remembered, a B on it. After class she came up to my desk, standing there rather awkwardly and shyly. "Mrs. Key," she said, "I think you made a mistake. I got a B on my paper." "Why no, Susan," I said, "That was right. That was a good paper." Her face changed utterly. She just glowed. "Why, that's the first B I ever got!" she cried with deep joy and ran out of the room. I don't know when I have seen such happiness on a child's face and felt such a pang in my own heart.

The Slow Learner in the Homogeneous Class

Some teachers find a whole class of slow learners a challenge; others dread it. Admittedly, the problems are many. Since the students usually have little intrinsic interest in classroom work, particularly in the academic subjects, the class is often characterized by a general apathy. Its slow progress makes severe demands on the teacher's patience.

Sometimes classes for slow learners include brighter students who have behavior difficulties or need remedial work. Unless these students receive extensive counseling, they may disrupt learning for everyone.

For a class composed predominantly of very slow students, the following suggestions may prove useful.

The selection of text material is of prime importance. It is important to find text material that is written for adolescents but which is considerably simplified. Some teachers experiment by writing their own materials. Sometimes elementary texts not used in the elementary schools can be cut up and the pages bound in folders. If the standard text is too difficult for students, current materials may be tried. Although these are written for an adult audience, the popular style, the pictures, the higher interest level may help to overcome reading reluctance as well as reading limitations. Much popular adult material actually has a vocabulary load that is about sixth-grade level.

A careful scrutiny of course content should be undertaken early in the term. Normally one selects materials and projects carefully in planning for teaching; with a class of slow learners content must be drastically pruned. Whatever reading assignments are planned should be short and spaced far enough apart so that students do not become hopelessly discouraged. However, avoid belaboring two or three paragraphs of text each period. If it is obvious that the point has been missed, try to simplify the explanation and go on to the next problem or idea. Later, after reflection, one could try a new approach to the difficult concept and see if it works better.

Written assignments should be kept brief. Students with a reading handicap usually have difficulty in written work. And even if they can read, their writing is probably considerably less than fluent. Spelling will be a problem unless concentration is given to a list of words used frequently. The procedures so

well described by John Holt, and by Fader and McNeil,¹⁰ should be utilized to develop writing skill with slow learners or those who have never felt free to write.

As learning activities and content are selected, the teacher must devise some way for the students to gain a sense of achievement. Perhaps they can build a model stage or make a relief map or mount some common moths. School success is a rare experience in the lives of slow learners. The more they can experience success that is genuine, worthwhile, and truly their own, the more willing they will be to expend effort on schoolwork.

Since the slow learner's capacity for intellectualization is limited, it is essential to find applications of abstract material. Slow learners have as varied an adolescent life as brighter students; this can be exploited to the full in relating class work to situations they know and live in. "Did you ever know a person like this?" or "Did anyone you know ever live in a place that sounded like this one?" or "What would your family do to solve a problem of this kind?" are some ways of drawing out the real-life class material.

The slow learner can and should work as hard as any other student. Given a chance, he too wants to make something of his life and will respond with a full measure of devotion and energy if he knows the teacher is on his side. Never make snide comments about the intellectual limitations of the group; this is destructive and unprofessional. The teacher shows that he is on "their" side by helping these students learn in short doses. Each day may very well have to be self-contained. To recall what happened the day before, when three or four other classes have already intervened, is asking a great deal of limited intelligence.

Patience is perhaps the teacher's chief ally. Often the simplest instructions, the most elementary ideas, must be repeated many times. It may take every bit of self-control for the brighter teacher to keep from lambasting the dull class if he has explained something for the tenth time without their gaining the essential point. For the mental health of both student and teacher, it is more useful to think of the variety of ways a single idea or concept can be presented and the many ways relearning can be guided. Using some of the more interesting "fun" ways of organizing drill and review (see Chapter 11) will help immeasurably.

Teaching the Fast Learner

Consider the following students:

Johnny has all the answers. Before Miss Brown has finished explaining the contribution of Einstein to the development of the atomic bomb, his hand is

¹⁰ John Holt, "How Teachers Make Children Hate Reading," Redbook, November 1967, pp. 50-61. (Extensive coverage of writing activities are included here); and Daniel N. Fader and Elton B. McNeil, *Hooked on Books: Program and Proof*. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1966, pp. 27-44.

waving wildly in the air—he is ready to launch into a vivid, accurate, rapid half-hour lecture of his own on $E = mc^2$.

Annabelle never has to study. Her papers come in with the regularity of a ticking clock: neat, polished, perfect. She has an aloof and bored expression during the hour's discussion of *King Lear*. Yet, when asked to write a theme on the major issues raised, she does so effortlessly and with remarkable insight.

Gordon is a pest. He gets every assignment done in one tenth of the time it takes the rest of the class. His work can be quite good, but it is usually sloppy, careless, tossed off in a hurry. Then he spends the rest of the time making life miserable for Mr. Jones, Mrs. Gray, Mr. Snyder—in fact, for every teacher he has. He can think of more ways to annoy teachers than a whole school of adolescents.

Bill had a terrible report card. The highest mark on it was a C, and this was in physical education. His citizenship marks were equally bad. No one could get him to work in school. Laziness, perversity, cussedness? No one knew.

What do the students above have in common? It is this: they are all very bright. They have intelligence quotients ranging from 140 on up. Their problems, at times, seem very similar to those of the slow learner, and sometimes very different. While work for the slow learner needs to be simplified and slowed down, work for the fast student has to be accelerated and made more complex, and must provide full scope for students' inventiveness to grow.

There are some popular notions about gifted youngsters that should be dispelled. According to observers—and contrary to popular stereotypes—the very bright student is usually as healthy as any other child, if not more so; is likely to be as emotionally stable as other students, if not more so—in fact, he presents a picture of superiority in many areas, not merely in intelligence. It is generally expected that the very bright will somehow be peculiar; yet research studies contradict this notion. It is true that the very bright child often associates with older persons. His interests have grown faster than those of his contemporaries, and his mind can grasp more mature matters. At the same time, his social maturity may not have kept pace.¹¹ The brightest in a class may be the youngest; and this difference in age will make him feel awkward, out of place, or odd.

Some fast learners have particular difficulties because of cultural expectations and values. It is not unusual, for example, to find very bright girls refusing to demonstrate their intelligence. They may do only the minimum of schoolwork; they prefer to get by on average performance, and even deliberately do poorly in subjects they know well. The expectation is still common in our society that women should know less than men; that boys prefer the "dumb blonde." In one college, where the grade averages of all students are published annually,

¹¹ Edward C. Frerenson, "The Gifted," *Review of Educational Research*, 39, February 1969, 27-37.

the girls openly admit that it would be very dangerous for them as "date material" to get averages that are too high. The boys won't ask a "brain" out for a coke or a dance. Against such social pressures, the teacher may easily feel helpless. Is he doing the girl a disservice by demanding that she use her superior brain? By doing so, she may alienate herself from her social group; she may be educated out of adjustment to her own concept of her proper role. On the other hand, the teacher may feel that the set of values that says women must hide intelligence is a poor one, since America needs all the educated talent it can get.¹²

The problem of the girl who will not work to capacity is very similar to that of the boy who uses his intelligence only selectively. He may be the star on the football field because of his photographic memory for plays and his keen, quick mind in figuring out strategy. But when it comes to analyzing geometric proofs, he just won't be bothered. Or he may refuse to discuss poetry or classical music or art because he thinks of these as "sissy stuff." The problems posed by such youngsters are not easily solved. All teachers are reluctant to see a bright student sit through classes without applying his intelligence to the material at hand. But they need to recognize that, in order to keep his self-respect, a boy must try to grow up into his vision of what a "real" man is—a vision that reflects some of the problems and distortions of the adult world.

In recent years there has been a tremendous growth of interest in the educational provisions being made for the gifted. These individuals should become the leaders and creative thinkers of the future if given a chance. However, the recent student protests and revolts on college and university campuses, often at very prestigious institutions admitting only a select and superior group of students, suggest that something may be wrong with the kind of education they previously had. The studies of student unrest show that it is not the potential drop-out who is making life difficult for college administrators; bright and able students with good records are found among the leaders and followers of these protests. Similarly, secondary schools are being faced with a new generation of young people who, in a few instances, also are trying their wings at protesting; and again, one is apt to find many of the brightest and most articulate in the forefront. As has been noted by commentators, and by the students themselves, one source of the protests is the discovery by young people of the distance between what is preached at them and what is practiced.¹³ The bright student is less likely now than ever before to obey teachers meekly, or to do something just because the teacher says to do it. While bright students will be motivated to get good grades in high school so that they can go on to college (which is what most able middle-class students want), some are beginning to question even

¹² *Women and the Scientific Professions*, Jacquelyn A. Mattfield, and Carol G. Van Alon (eds.). Boston, the Massachusetts Institute of Technology Press, 1965; and *The Potential of Woman*, Seymour Farber, and R. H. L. Wilson (eds.). New York: McGraw-Hill, Inc., 1963.

¹³ *Dialogue on Youth*, John McCabe (ed.). Indianapolis, The Bobbs-Merrill Company, Inc., 1967; and Beatrice M. Gudridge, "Is Student Protest Spreading to the High School?" *Today's Education*, October 1968, pp. 31-32; see also *Riot Data Review*. Lemberg Center for the Study of Violence, Brandeis University. Report #2, August 1968.

this as a carrot to make them do irrelevant or meaningless activities. One bright student summed up his view of what high school was all about:

"The major goal of the school today is to turn out nice, behaved young ladies and gentlemen into the stinking world that's so messed up."

Another commented, not too gently, that the purpose of high school was "To get the students in and out of here in three years and get all the knowledge up their ass as soon as possible." And another: "To manufacture middle-class citizens." And a final, and most devastating, comment about the purpose of education:

... turn out students who fit the administration's idea of normal, well-adjusted individuals. This includes firm suppression of any deviation from the norm—signs of rebellion, and the like. Many of the more brainwashed students help the administration reach this goal by ostracizing members of minority groups. People who dress differently or whose opinions are different are constantly baited. In my opinion this kind of harassing only tends to make people withdraw farther from the society that encourages it.

Such comments, collected by a high-school teacher from an upper-track class, illustrates the anger and dismay of bright teen-agers who find the education provided to be hollow, if not actually hypocritical. It is a major challenge to teachers of secondary school today to reach and teach such adolescents. They are of a different breed than previous generations of young geniuses who gratefully complied with every request. The alienated, the hostile and violent rebel, are as much products of the secondary school as of any other force in the culture.

The Fast Learner in the Homogeneous Class

The advantages and disadvantages of ability-grouping for fast learners have also been debated at length. To minimize the disadvantages that may attend this kind of grouping, the teacher should plan programs based on these major principles:

Learn to know individual differences among the very bright. Although the ability of the group may be generally superior, there will be great differences in interests and motivation.

Establish a high standard of performance, which challenges the abilities of the group. There should be a constant attempt to help students establish a standard of workmanship that makes them uncomfortable with inferior work. This is best accomplished by group discussion, by inquiry on the part of the teacher as to what more could be done, by playing down grades and emphasizing competence, by having available a rich range of resources and activities.

Devote special attention to the development of adequate social skills. The teacher may use material that emphasizes social understanding, and classroom techniques that promote cooperation and interchange.

Encourage individual initiative and student leadership. The bright student may acquire leadership roles just because he is bright, not because he is a good leader. Sensitivity to the needs and feelings of followers is an important aspect

of the education of the very bright. This sensitivity comes as a result of opportunities to assume leadership responsibility.

Do not let the class get a false idea of superiority. Intellectual segregation may produce in bright students a spurious sense of their own competence. Showing them how much more they have to learn, and demonstrating the lessons to be learned from others regardless of IQ, will help reduce this possibility. However, the students in special advanced sections are often highly insecure and anxious, as a result of teacher prodding "to keep them from feeling too smart." Some teachers threaten to "demote" students to regular sections if they do not continuously prove how smart they are.

Set a high level of expectation regarding self-discipline, self-control, and self-direction. Bright students can go a long way in educating themselves and in running their own affairs if an opportunity is provided for making mistakes under guidance. The bright student needs the mature adult as much as the slow student, but the former kind of student can learn more quickly from his experiences. Independent study activities should be extensively utilized.

The Fast Learner in the Heterogeneous Class

In classes where bright students are found with all other varieties of intelligence and personality, the teacher should be on the alert to give them special aid and help. Such students profit from an enriched program. Although they must follow the curricular pattern of their classmates, they should be expected to explore many side-avenues of interest as well. Some classroom techniques for meeting the needs of fast learners in mixed classes are summarized below:

Materials on an adult level covering the content of the course should be available in the classroom. Wherever possible, these should be particularly recommended to the bright student as a substitute for textbook material.

Do not allow bright students to monopolize the teacher's time. Sometimes the response of bright students is so rewarding that the teacher gears a whole class to these few. This does the rest of the class a disservice and is likely to interfere with the optimum adjustment of the bright students.

Allow bright students to develop all their talents. Too often the bookish interest of the bright student is exploited, as though this were the only demonstration of intelligence that really counted. The superior student may often have other talents, too. This fact should be recognized by the teacher in making assignments. For example, one very bright boy won a Merit scholarship, a Science Talent Award, taught flute, won a prize for the best creative story, and organized a get-out-the-vote campaign in his neighborhood.

Identifying very bright students is a major responsibility of the teacher and the school. If school records are carefully used, such students can be spotted early. Sometimes the maladjusted student who is very bright is not recognized because of his disruptive classroom behavior. However, if his superior intelligence is given recognition, the behavior problem will probably disappear. The teacher

will do most to aid the superior student by enriching his intellectual fare while facilitating his acceptance as a desirable member of the class.

Teachers often vie for classes of the academically talented because of the aura of prestige that surrounds them. Presumably, rubbing classroom shoulders with bright students is "better" than being with the same number of average or dull students. This valuation may result in teachers with the most seniority getting these special classes. Unfortunately, seniority does not always accompany the kind of teacher talent that is especially useful for classrooms of gifted students. In fact, some older teachers with seniority may be unable to be as flexible as changing times and mores demand and treat today's fifteen-year-olds the same way they treated fifteen-year-olds several decades previously.

Creativity: A Particular Kind of Difference

Students who deviate from "normal" expectancies are often puzzling to teachers. Among the most difficult to characterize are students who are distinctively creative. Presumably, creativity is a prized goal of education; yet observation and research indicate that schools more often discourage creativity and repress or punish creative young people.

While high intelligence and high creativity are not necessarily associated, often the highly creative student is lumped along with the highly intelligent. Such creativity is not easy for the average teacher to deal with graciously. Studies of the creative individual show that he puts reality together in a new and unique way; he sees shortcuts that the average mind misses; he can use fantasy to dream up unusual solutions to new questions. He often is marked by a bizarre sense of humor and he is adept at ingenious ways of making mischief, particularly if bored.

The teacher with highly intelligent and/or highly creative students either in his regular classes or in special sections, needs extra doses of patience and insight. To be too bright or too creative is apt to strain the individual's relationships in all realms of his life: at home, at school, with his peers. Teachers who are alert to the particular needs of these students can help channel their unique attributes in ways rewarding to them and also deflect them from interfering with the slower and more pedestrian ways of their fellows. For instance, if Jack, who has a real flair for music, wants to spend the period experimenting with an original composition on a 12-tone scale, while the others are barely managing to recognize the difference between *b* and *b* flat, then it seems reasonable to permit Jack to try his luck and test his talent. If Ted has finished all the chemistry experiments in two months, which the rest of the class will struggle with for the whole semester, he can be encouraged to see if he can invent better experiments to demonstrate the same principles—if he wants to—or to carry out his own research and investigation. Why not? In some schools, when a student or group of students have exhausted the repertoire of the teacher, it has been possible to work out arrangements with local colleges or universities to let the able student attend a college class or work in a college laboratory or studio—a far better

Equally important is the readiness and ability to ask questions. Every activity of the classroom should lead students to say "How?" "Why?" "Could there be another way of doing this?" When they ask teachers, fellow students, and themselves questions and seek answers they are—in one sense—already involved in the creative-thinking process.

An atmosphere that encourages creative thinking is one in which daydreaming is not the worst possible thing a student can do. One of the great shortcomings of secondary schools is that many do not allow needed time for thinking. It is through the daydream that out-of-the-ordinary thinking has a chance to catch hold. What opportunities for creative thinking are strangled when daydreaming is ruled out as a "waste of time"?

Evidence reveals that almost all people have creative ability in some areas and that creativity can be developed as can other aspects of personality. The following guidelines to encourage creative thinking and behavior suggest that the teacher should:

- Value creative thinking himself
- Develop a creative classroom atmosphere
- Help students to see the value and pleasure of thinking and behaving creatively
- Help students to be sensitive to their environment
- Avoid establishing set patterns of behavior in students
- Develop an interest in the students for new ideas
- Teach students how to test ideas systematically
- Encourage the habit of working out the full implication of ideas
- Teach students to value their own creative thinking
- Develop the ability in students to criticize constructively

Whether one agrees with Albert Einstein that imagination is more important than knowledge, it is certain that the student of today cannot become the happy, productive citizen of tomorrow without finding and perfecting his creative powers.

Other Kinds of Differences

At the opening of this chapter it was noted that there are many youth with physical handicaps. Special schools for the blind and deaf remove many of them from secondary school. Increasingly, however, programs are being designed to try to bring these students into the regular classroom. New devices and aids make it possible for many such young people to cope quite well with normal classroom routines. A student teacher reported the presence of a blind girl in one of her classes who took notes on her Braille machine and kept up well with class discussion. She missed, of course, the nonverbal cues the teacher might give the class, and it meant that the student teacher had consciously to put into words whatever she wrote on the blackboard and verbalize many things she had taken for granted with sighted students. She also kept up a kind of

running patter on what was going on for the sake of the blind girl who could not tell she was passing out test papers at the same time that she was discussing the assignment for the next week. Schools are being built equipped with ramps and elevators so that students bound to a wheel chair can have normal classroom experiences. With increases in medical care, many children who would have died in infancy from crippling diseases or malformations now live into a mature adulthood and thus may be expected to appear in classrooms in increased numbers. The teacher who has such students would do well to read the specialized literature, some of which is listed in the bibliography of this chapter, and also consult health and guidance people for assistance.

The emotionally disturbed child, who may be a classroom discipline problem, and whose special problems are considered in Chapter 16, may upset some teachers. "If Bill is under psychiatric care, how can I treat him like a 'normal' student?" is the question teachers ask. They may worry unduly about pressuring such a child to turn in homework, to pay attention to class discussion, to refrain from fidgeting and wriggling—admonitions normally scattered freely around a classroom of "normal" students. Unless the teacher has contrary advice from a trained consultant, the best advice is to deal with such students as one would any other student, but with special antenna tuned to detect responses that are warnings of trouble. One wise junior-high principal, knowing that a boy had some severe problems of coping with the world of school, although an able and alert student, had an agreement worked out with him: he would come to school every day and stay as long as he felt comfortable. Then, when he felt he would burst if he stayed any longer, he checked in at the office and went home. Since his home was within walking distance of the school, this routine worked well. The boy kept up with all of his studies, and eventually was able to stay longer and longer in school. By the end of the semester he could stay in school for the whole day for weeks at a time. In another instance, this same principal found that a very difficult student found serenity only in the art room. After consultation with the student, his parents, the teacher, and some outside consultants, the student agreed to do his best in other classes and to refrain from the disruptive behavior that was causing everyone ulcers, if he had two or three hours in the art room each day. When he became disruptive, he had to stay in the office instead of in the art room. Eventually, he too found it possible to be comfortable, and not disruptive, in his regular classes and gradually reduced the hours spent in the art room. The art teacher, fortunately, was able to let him alone doing whatever drawing, sculpturing, wood carving, or just plain sitting, that suited his mood.

But these instances where school routines have been adjusted to help students who are overwhelmed by personal difficulties are still rare.

Steven's mother was at her wit's end. Her boy was about to be kicked out of school, she had been told. He was almost always late to school, no matter when she got him out of the house. He rarely if ever did his homework. He was letting his hair grow to an outlandish length and absolutely refused to cut it. However,

he was a talented scene designer and one of the most gifted clarinetists in the school band. They needed him to design and execute the sets for the big spring musical comedy; in the fall he was a key to the success of the band at football games. It was lucky that this was so; otherwise he would have been asked to leave school since he had passed the sixteen-year-age for compulsory attendance. Steven's mother was glad they kept him in school. She was angered, however, that her son's scores on the standardized achievement tests were always in the 80s and 90s; yet the teachers all gave him D and F grades because of "attendance" or "attitude." His way to college was effectively blocked by these maneuvers, and there is question as to whether he will learn to use his real talents positively. Certainly the school did the least it could; it exploited him (as he knew) and then punished him.

While every student is different, some are more different than others. Such students, who differ markedly from the norm, present special learning problems for teachers. Students with marked physical handicaps, while often cared for in special institutions, may also be enrolled in increasing numbers in regular classrooms so that they may have a better chance at an approximation of "normal" adolescent life. The problems of students whose intellectual capacities are at either end of the normal distribution—either quite slow in learning or very able—pose a different challenge. Adapting instruction to meet these varying needs requires teacher imagination and ingenuity. The issue regarding the grouping of students by ability remains unresolved. So far, the "perfect" procedure for grouping students so that all may learn at their optimum level has not yet been devised.

RECOMMENDED READING

- Anderson, Harold H. (ed.). *Creativity and Its Cultivation*. New York: Harper & Row, Publishers, 1959. A general treatment by 15 authors of ways in which creativity can be encouraged. The implications concern teachers as well as students.
- Bishop, William E. "Successful Teachers of the Gifted," *Exceptional Children*, 34, January 1968, 317-325. Reports a research study of the traits that were present in teachers of very gifted adolescents; challenges some beliefs held as to what competence such a teacher needs.
- Blackham, Garth J. *The Deviant Child in the Classroom*. Belmont, Calif.: Wadsworth Publishing Company, Inc., 1967. This book focuses primarily on the emotional problems of students, including those with brain injuries. Suggests procedures for teachers in working with students who are problems, and with their parents.
- Burchinal, Lee G. *Rural Youth in Crisis: Facts, Myths, and Social Change*. Washington, D.C.: Department of Health, Education and Welfare, 1965. See especially Part V, "Adapting to Urban Ways," which shows how immigrant rural youth may be a special problem for urban teachers.
- Clark, Donald H., and Gerald S. Lesser (eds.). *Emotional Disturbance and School Learning: A Book of Readings*. Chicago: Science Research Associates, 1965. An

- excellent collection of a variety of theoretical, research, and applied materials for teachers who have emotionally disturbed children in their classes.
- Cutts, Norma E., and Nicholas Moseley. *Teaching the Bright and Gifted*. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1957. A good, general discussion of the problems and programs for identifying and working with this kind of student throughout his school career.
- Erickson, Marion J. *The Mentally Retarded Child in the Classroom*. New York: Crowell-Collier and Macmillan, Inc., 1965. Provides a good overview, in a brief space, of the general field with a special chapter on secondary-school programs.
- Gallagher, James J. *Teaching the Gifted Child*. Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1964. One of the leading specialists in the field provides extensive information plus practical ideas of subject-matter applications of the data.
- Getzels, Jacob, and Philip W. Jackson. *Creativity and Intelligence*. New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1962. Presentation of research indicating that a high IQ does not indicate inherent creativity. Discussion of the implications of this finding with respect to teaching and learning.
- Jordan, Thomas E. *Perspective in Mental Retardation*. Carbondale, Ill.: Southern Illinois University Press, 1966. An excellent collection of papers dealing with many aspects of the problem which will interest secondary-school educators.
- Kirk, Samuel A. *Educating Exceptional Children*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1962. A standard text, which includes discussion of the problems of the blind, deaf, aphasic, slow learners, handicapped, and other types of exceptional students.
- Masland, Richard L., Seymour B. Sarason, and Thomas Gladwin. *Mental Subnormality*. New York: Basic Books, Inc., 1958. A major work covering all phases of the problem.
- Nason, Leslie J. *How To Help the Underachiever*. Los Angeles: Leslie J. Nason, 1966. A small pamphlet with good, specific suggestions for helping youth with learning problems.
- 1965-1966 *Bibliography: Creativity and Problem Solving*. Buffalo, N.Y.: Creative Education Foundations, Inc., 1967. The most thorough bibliography available in the field of creativity and problem solving.
- "On Creativity," *Playboy*, 15, December 1968, No. 12, 136-139. Thirteen contemporary writers express their reactions to the question, "Do creative people have any characteristics in common, in their backgrounds or their personalities, which can be identified as wellsprings of creativity?"
- Osborn, Alex F. *Applied Imagination*. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1957. A basic book on the principles and procedures of creative thinking; the technique of "brainstorming" is discussed as one of the ways in which individuals can apply innate creativity to all aspects of personal and vocational life.
- Otto, Wayne, and Richard A. McMenemy. *Corrective and Remedial Teaching*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1966. Provides many specific and practical suggestions for providing help to students who have not made adequate educational progress. A good resource for the teacher.
- Parnes, Sidney, and Harold F. Harding (eds.). *A Source Book for Creative Thinking*. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1962. Selected research and statements in the field of creativity. Especially helpful to the secondary-school teacher is the section, "Operational Procedures for Creative Problem Solving," which contains articles suggesting specific creative-thinking techniques for developing creativity.

- Peters, Robert M. "Accent on the Able Student," *Business Education Forum*, 23, March 1969, 11-12.
- Redl, Fritz, and William Wattenberg. *Mental Hygiene in Teaching* (2d ed.). New York: Harcourt, Brace & World, Inc., 1959. One of the best discussions of the ways in which teachers can provide emotionally adequate classroom atmospheres, with specific descriptions of the roles and behaviors of the teacher.
- Storen, Helen F. *The Disadvantaged Early Adolescent: More Effective Teaching*. New York: McGraw-Hill, Inc., 1968. Provides numerous practical helps for the teacher in classrooms with many deprived students, with authentic reports by students and teachers.
- Tannenbaum, Abraham L. *Adolescent Attitudes toward Academic Brilliance*. New York: Teachers College Press, Columbia University, 1962. Do adolescents themselves value academic talent?
- Thelen, Herbert. *Grouping for Teachability*. New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1967. The opening chapter is an illuminating history of the use of groups by age and ability in American schools. The author's research on "teachable groups" is provocative.
- Thomas, R. Murray. *Aiding the Maladjusted Pupil*. New York: David McKay Company, Inc., 1967. Background material on the multiple causes of school maladjustment, with case material for junior- and senior-high levels included.
- Torrance, E. Paul. *Guiding Creative Talent*. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1962. Offers original approaches for handling the needs and problems of gifted students. Illustrates how highly creative young people may alienate friends, diverge from sex norms, undertake dangerous tasks, or develop neurotic conflicts.
- Torrance, E. Paul. *Rewarding Creative Behavior*. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1965. Practical advice on how teachers can stimulate creative responses in their students.
- Torrance, E. Paul. *What Research Says to the Teacher: Creativity*. Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1963. Pamphlet that discusses the meaning of creativity, how it is manifested at different educational levels, how it is measured, what teachers can do to help students, and how they can develop their own creativity as well. Excellent short guide to the subject.
- Torrance, E. Paul, and Robert D. Stron (eds.). *Mental Health and Achievement: Increasing Potential and Reducing School Drop-out*. New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1965. Many articles in this collection provide stimulating material for teachers working with adolescents who have learning problems.
- Wachtjen, Walter B. (ed.). *Human Variability and Learning*. Washington, D.C.: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1961. Excellent collection of papers specially prepared for this monograph. See chapters by Sarason, Thelen, and Lippitt regarding the way anxiety and different group situations affect different kinds of students.
- Weiner, Norbert. *Ex-Prodigy: My Childhood and Youth*. New York: Simon and Schuster, Inc., 1953. An excruciatingly poignant account of how difficult it is for the genius to achieve maturity and serenity.
- Witty, Paul A. (ed.). *The Educationally Retarded and Disadvantaged*. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1967. (Sixty-sixth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education). Provides excellent material for helping teachers distinguish among students who are educationally limited or culturally disadvantaged.

- Yates, A. (ed.). *Grouping in Education*. New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1966.
Many facets of grouping problems are explored.
- "You and Creativity," (entire issue), *Kaiser Aluminum News*, 25, No. 3. Public Affairs Dept., Kaiser Aluminum and Chemical Corporation, Kaiser Center 866, Oakland, Calif. 94604. Articles on the creative process; excellent collection of individual and group creative games; bibliography and definitions.

Tailor-made, Ready-made *tests and testing procedures*

13

In Chapter 1, the essential aspects of the teaching-learning process were identified as the need to "know what," "know why," and "know how." But there is a fourth aspect: "Know how well." Periodically, teachers must assess the results of their efforts to teach and the results of the student's efforts to learn. In fact, evaluation of teaching-learning occurs all the time, sometimes informally and sometimes formally.

For too long, too many teachers have taken a narrow view of measurement which stresses testing for the purpose of assigning grades. Certainly assigning grades is a necessary job as schools are now organized; but it is probably the least important aspect of measurement. Testing materials in general use often demand recall of specific factual information from textbooks or ability to reproduce what has been stated in class.

Today, with greater stress upon providing a variety of materials and activities and with such new teaching arrangements as flexible scheduling, team teaching, programmed learning, and educational television, the old methods of measuring learning are inadequate. Full appraisal of learning necessitates the acceptance of a wider concept of evaluation.

Evaluation Is Broader than Testing

Evaluation is a process used to obtain facts from testing, from direct observations of behavior, anecdotal records, conferences, checklists, rating scales,

case studies, essay writing, and other devices for measuring and observing. Any method of data-gathering can be a tool in the evaluation process, making it possible to observe more efficiently and to make more reliable comparisons. "How well are we doing?" is the basic question to be answered.

It is important to know:

1. How well all adolescents are progressing.
2. Whether some are making generally better progress than others.
3. Whether some are making better progress in some aspects of the program and doing poorly in others.
4. Whether the school as a whole is contributing its utmost to the development of useful citizens.
5. Whether some parts of the school program are doing a better job than others.

Adequate evaluation means that all of these differences in the quality of learning are recorded and interpreted. In addition, two reasons for evaluation should be included:

6. The individual himself wishes to view his progress in terms of his own capabilities and in comparison with the progress of others.
7. The teacher seeks knowledge of the comparative effectiveness of various materials and experiences, both with groups and individuals.

When evaluation is considered in this broader sense, one may wonder how it is possible to ever collect data to answer all the questions raised. Yet it is not only possible, but essential, that teachers and administrators know how well they are doing in terms of these seven major evaluative inquiries. Fortunately, techniques are now available which will give some information about each of them.

Characteristics of Evaluation

Evaluation occurs when any person or group determines the extent to which previously defined goals are being achieved. Some parents may wish their children to go on to college, others will expect their children to earn a living upon graduation from high school. The young people themselves may have varying goals: some will seek to gain parental approval through success in high school; others will place peer acceptance as most valued. The strength of each of these desires depends upon an individual's ability, his previous experiences, his cultural background, his stage of development, and his own perception of himself.

Teachers likewise have different goals. One teacher may stress the acquisition of subject-matter content. Another may stress skills development, and yet another may make the development of creative individuals his major aim. Still another is primarily concerned with value analysis.

The uniqueness of the individual person, program, or situation being ap-

praised must be respected. Since the processes of maturation and the outcomes of learning are diverse, evaluation must be flexible in terms of individual differences. An evaluation program must be judged in terms of its appropriateness to the individual, the school, and the community.

Evaluation as a Cumulative Process

Evaluative judgments can be made only on the basis of long-term performance and observation. Proper evaluation includes a continuous gathering of data over a long period of time and frequent examination of the data from the perspective of what has preceded it. For example, is growth in learning French simply an average of grades or the competence the student has acquired at the end of the course?

Data from evaluation can be used diagnostically. Such data can provide the teacher and the pupil with evidence about the strengths and weaknesses in the pupil's growth and can suggest areas in which special work needs to be done. Evaluation data may indicate a need for adjustment in the curriculum and in techniques or procedures used, or the data may identify a need for adjustment by the pupil in behavior or study habits. It must be remembered that evaluation is for the teacher as well as the student. The question, "How successful is my teaching?" must be asked at all times. Otherwise, how can a teacher decide whether to continue an activity, to modify it, or to do something else? Self-evaluation is essential to the student's growth toward maturity—a growth that involves self-motivation, self-direction, and a maturing concept of self.

Evaluation of student achievement and growth has three major areas of concern:

1. Developing a point of view toward evaluation
2. Constructing and using tests and examinations in the classroom
3. Grading and reporting student achievement

Classroom Tests

Although it is true that tests provide only one view of student progress, it is important and necessary for teachers to gather information through tests measuring achievement in understandings and skills. However, since the typical classroom test is an instrument calling for only recall or recognition of facts, it gives a limited kind of assessment. Teachers rely on factual identification as the criteria of measurement largely because the average teacher has erroneous ideas regarding the purposes of teaching, does not know better methods, or is simply lazy.

Purposes Classroom Tests Should Serve

The first purpose of classroom testing is to measure what is being learned. What is being taught implies a careful delineation of objectives. Teachers typically think of testing only those facts or ideas that appear in textbooks or

have been presented by the teacher. But good tests attempt to reveal whether the objectives of instruction have been attained. Good teaching and testing are, in part, a result of the teacher's asking himself, "Why am I teaching this instead of that?" In answering such a question, the teacher becomes specific about his objectives and later is able to create tests that measure whether those objectives have been achieved.

The second purpose of classroom testing is to increase the impact of instruction and the student's ability to demonstrate this increase. Tests are a teaching tool; they are, or can be, a way of learning. Classroom tests can be thus used in three ways: (1) To increase motivation: knowledge of success motivates. A good test helps students find their strengths and not just their weaknesses. (2) To individualize instruction; a carefully made examination has a variety of elements. Thus the difficulty of test items will vary, and each student's responses can be analyzed. Some items will show ability to retain factual information; some will require specific skills; and some will involve critical thinking. A well-constructed test will enable the teacher to point out to students where they do well and where they do poorly. Careful examination of results, then, can assist the teacher in providing additional individual exercises to meet needs revealed by the tests. (3) To provide experience in test-taking: it is obvious that many avenues to jobs and careers involve test-taking. Students who become test-wise do better than equally able persons who are unfamiliar with tests. The "good" college entrance scores made by graduates of some schools are the result of specific coaching in test-taking techniques. Without condoning or advocating this practice, it is realistic to prepare young people for test hurdles even as they are prepared for other "real-world" situations. Well-constructed tests, well-analyzed by the teacher with the class to show why an error was made, help provide students with the skill and confidence to approach college boards, regents' exams, driver's tests, and Civil Service tests, with an extra margin of know-how which can make a great deal of difference.

As a third purpose classroom tests can serve as a guide to the teacher in the selection of content material and teaching techniques. Teachers should ask, "Why did the class perform as they did on this test?" "Were the materials and techniques pitched at the proper level for all or for some?" "If only some learned the material covered by the test, who are they?" Tests can show whether the level of generalizations or concepts is proper for the group, or for particular individuals in the group.

The fourth purpose classroom tests serve is the purpose of ranking and comparing achievement. Unfortunately, teachers usually consider this purpose the most important. The sticky issues involved in ranking students and assigning grades are worthy of more extended treatment which will be undertaken in the succeeding chapter.

Constructing Good Classroom Tests

Self-made tests are the type most commonly used in the classroom; every teacher constructs and administers dozens of them yearly. But, while teachers

will usually acknowledge shortcomings in the area of evaluation, they are quite sensitive about the tests they have constructed and resent direct criticism.

In the following sections emphasis will be on a particular kind of testing in the cognitive domain—that is, the area of knowledge and understanding.

Specific daily objectives in teaching are important not only to provide purpose and flow in the classroom, but to aid in the construction of tests. When the teacher is able to say why he is teaching what he is teaching, his formulation of appropriate test items is facilitated. The preparation of test items on a daily basis prevents a hastily prepared and often poor examination at the conclusion of a period of study.

Types of Classroom Tests

Much debate exists over the relative merits of essay and so-called objective tests. For the average teacher this debate is largely academic; both kinds of tests are useful and necessary for most classroom situations. For evaluating the attainment of some objectives, the essay test is appropriate; for others, objective-type items will do as well. From the standpoint of preparing, administering, and scoring the test, there is not—contrary to popular belief—any inherent advantage in either. An essay test may take somewhat less time to prepare, but will require more time to score. A good test made up of good objective-type items will take much longer to prepare, but can be scored quickly. Thus, the type of test items to be used may, and should, be determined on some basis other than teacher expediency. A test with a variety of item-types is the best test for measuring the attainment of a variety of objectives.

For some areas of the school curriculum, performance tests are appropriate. In this kind of test the student is required to perform the necessary act much as he would in a real-life situation, as for example, in student teaching. Such subjects as driver education, music, art, foreign languages, home economics, industrial arts, and physical education lend themselves to testing by performance.

In the performance test it is especially important that the criteria by which the student will be evaluated be made clear to him. Checklists and rating scales are often used. Some subject areas, such as art and home economics, may require projects as part of a test.

The following is a rating scale designed by a home economics teacher, in which students learn to evaluate their own work.

Evaluation Sheet for Jumper Project

Directions for scoring: Circle one number in each group which best describes the quality of work done. Pupil uses regular pencil. Teacher uses pencil of a different color Key: 4 = excellent, 3 = good, 2 = fair, 1 = poor.

1 Selection of fabric				
a Fabric suitable for jumper	4	3	2	1
b Color appropriate for jumper	4	3	2	1

2. Cutting and marking				
a. Clean-cut edges, not jagged	4	3	2	1
b. Fabric straightened	4	3	2	1
c. Marking made clearly	4	3	2	1
3. Stay-stitching				
a. Done $\frac{1}{4}$ to $\frac{1}{2}$ inch from edge	4	3	2	1
b. Done in matching thread	4	3	2	1
c. Done in regular stitching	4	3	2	1

Teacher's Total Score _____ Student's Total Score _____

While the performance test is valuable, there is need at some time, in virtually every subject, for the paper-and-pencil test. The teacher's concern, therefore, should be to make the best test possible for the purpose for which it is to be used.

Using Essay Tests

One of the continuing problems of essay testing is that the grades assigned to essay examinations reflect, in addition to the quality of the answers, factors that are unrelated or indirectly related to the academic goals of the subject covered by the examination. Diederich and others¹ reported an interesting research study which showed that papers containing gross composition errors (punctuation, spelling, grammar) were often apt to be given a lower grade than papers containing similar content material without the composition errors—even though the graders were not told on what basis the papers were to be scored.

The following outline indicates important considerations for anyone using essay tests:

1. Limitations
 - a. Low validity
 - (1) Limited sampling
 - (2) Irrelevant factors considered: handwriting, appearance
 - b. Low reliability
 - (1) Subjectivity of scorer (fatigue factor may make for uneven grading)
 - (2) Physical and mental condition of scorer
 - (3) The "halo effect" of student's other work
2. Advantages
 - a. Useful in measuring the student's ability to organize, interpret, evaluate, and apply

¹ P. B. Diederich, J. W. French, and S. T. Carlton, "Factors in Judgments of Writing Ability," Research Bulletin Series RB 61-15. Princeton, N.J.: Educational Testing Service, 1961

- b. Useful in measuring the student's ability to summarize and outline, to see relationships and trends
- c. Useful in measuring the student's ability to write fluently and clearly
3. Precautions in construction
 - a. Increase number of questions and restrict length of response.
 - b. Specifically indicate areas to be discussed.
 - c. The student's name should not appear on the paper. The teacher should provide a separate sheet of paper on which the student signs his name and test number; this way papers are more apt to be evaluated on their merit and not upon subjective reactions by the teacher to a particular student.
4. Scoring
 - a. Since different items would vary in difficulty and thus prevent comparisons between students, there should be no choice of questions or, if choice is provided, it should be based on careful rewording that focuses on content that is essentially similar.
 - b. Provide each student with a resumé of the factors upon which his answer will be graded before he begins the test. For example, a teacher might indicate that students will be graded on:
 - (1) Organization of the material
 - (2) Validity and clarity of general statements
 - (3) The use of appropriate facts to illustrate general statements or arguments
 - (4) The authority cited for their statements
 - c. Note each error and point omitted and write down the amount deducted. Be sure to make allowance for additional pertinent, but not anticipated, points so that creative students are rewarded.
 - d. Grade one question at a time for all papers.
 - e. If there is time, divide papers into groups by grades and re-read some to see if the quality of response is consistent.
 - f. If there are a great many papers to be graded, do not grade all at one sitting; this will prevent reader fatigue and lessen the possibility of penalizing some students.

Examples of Essay Test Items

Here are several examples of well-constructed essay test items:

General Science

A woman planted some flower seeds beside her house. The plants did not grow very well. The woman next door planted seeds of the same kind of flower. These plants grew very well. The first woman wondered why her flower plants did not grow as well as those of the woman next door. What information must you have before you can tell her why?

Social Studies

The financial position of the national government itself was precarious. It had been impossible to finance the war from current taxation. Between 1812

and 1816 bond issues to a total face value of \$80,000,000 were floated. Yet the returns measured in terms of specie were disappointing—only about \$34,000,000. By these operations the national debt reached the staggering total of about \$125,000,000.

1. Was the federal "budget" balanced? Explain.
2. Were the government bonds marketed above or below par? Explain.
3. What was the condition of government credit? Explain.

Restricted Essay Items

A major problem in essay testing is getting adequate "sampling" of the content materials taught. If essay questions are constructed so that they require a very restricted and concise response, students can answer a greater number of such questions in the testing period, and the sampling power of the test is correspondingly improved. A "restricted essay" test of the following type has been used successfully with a senior high-school class.

Directions: "Relationship" may have a variety of meanings, such as cause-and-effect, similarity, difference, opposition, agreement, general-idea-and-specific-example, etc. *There may be more than one aspect of relationship involved in a single pair of items.*

Explain the relationships you see between the item in Column A and the item in Column B. Write sentences, and do not use more than 50 words for any pair.

Example from science:	Column A	Column B
	Darwin	Lamarck
Example from English:	Photosynthesis	Chlorophyll
	Column A	Column B
Example from social studies:	Thoreau	Emerson
	Boo Radley	Tom Robinson
Example from home economics:	Column A	Column B
	George Kennan	"Containment"
	14th Amendment	Civil Rights
	Column A	Column B
	Body weight	Proteins
	Consumer	Home budget
	Price Index	

Using "Objective" Tests

The "objective" test question is objective only in the sense that there are fewer ambiguities in the mind of the teacher about what constitutes the correct answer. In essay questions the correct answer depends on many subjective factors, and this frequently creates insecurity in students as well as in teachers. The reaction to objective tests is usually less violent, probably because students feel secure in the knowledge that their answers are considered simply right or wrong. "Objective" test items, however, are subjectively selected and represent the test-maker's ideas about what should be learned. And here teachers differ radically

What is vital and significant to one may be dull and trivial to another. Again and again, the teacher who utilizes the objective test must ask, "Is what I am testing for really worth learning? Should students retain this understanding or this skill for a week? A month? For five years? For the rest of their lives?"

The major kinds of objective tests are:

1. Completion

Example: Chlorophyll is usually found in _____.

2. True-False

Example: T F Vitamin D, a nutrient found in milk, prevents rickets.

3. Multiple-choice

Example: The textile-labeling law requires that a label be attached to every garment to inform us of:

- a. the natural fibers used.
- b. the synthetic fibers used.
- c. the shrinkage of the garment.
- d. all fibers used in the fabric.

4. Matching

Example: Match the following individuals with the word that best identifies the achievement of each:

Edison	dynamite
Ford	telephone
Bell	electricity
	automobile

The table on pages 304-305 gives in compact form the chief problems in constructing each of these four types, the advantages and limitations of each one, and the situations in which they can be most effectively used.

Examples of Objective Test Items

Below are some examples of acceptable test items for each type of test in a number of different fields. Sample directions are given for each type. Note that answer spaces are provided uniformly at one side of the test paper, which makes it possible to use simple answer sheets, for example, an IBM test sheet, to be placed beside the answer spaces.

True-False

Below is a series of statements. Some are true and some are false. If you believe a statement to be true exactly as it is stated, circle T; if not, circle F. Do not guess.

- T F The *Citadel* and *Arrowsmith* are both novels about college professors.
- T F The "Cross of Gold" in Bryan's famous speech represented income taxes.
- T F Eye color results entirely from heredity.

Multiple-Choice

For each question or statement that appears below, encircle the letter of the item which best answers, or completes, that question or statement.

1. A type of speech which is found largely in a certain geographical areas is called
 - a. a dialogue
 - b. an archaism
 - c. a colloquialism
 - d. a dialect
2. Why do congressmen often prefer an "Aye" or "No" vote, a rising vote, or a vote by tellers, rather than a roll-call vote?
 - a. There is less confusion and the voting is more orderly.
 - b. There is less possibility of error in the count.
 - c. The minority party has a better chance to be heard.
 - d. There is no record kept of how the individual voted.
3. A Dacron and cotton blouse which will be both comfortable and easy to care for should have at least:
 - a. 15% Dacron
 - b. 35% Dacron
 - c. 65% Dacron
 - d. 50% Dacron

Matching

In the left column below is a series of words; in the right column is another series of words. For each word in the left column, select from the right column the word which is most nearly the same in meaning. In the spaces at the left of the numbers, insert the letters of the words selected.

- | | |
|------------------------|-----------------|
| _____ 1. arena | a. amphitheater |
| _____ 2. assassination | b. chopper |
| _____ 3. cleaver | c. contest |
| _____ 4. consternation | d. dismay |
| | e. murder |
| | f. militant |

In the left column below is a series of statements; in the right column is a series of names. Select the names that are correctly associated with the statements and place the number of the correct name in the space at the left of the statement.

- | | |
|--|------------------|
| _____ His revolt against the Church probably would have been unsuccessful had the Emperor not been engaged in foreign warfare. | 1. Henry VIII |
| _____ His conflict with the Church netted him great economic advantages. | 2. John Huss |
| | 3. Martin Luther |

For each group of items below, place in the blank before each word or phrase in the left-hand list the letter of the word or phrase in the right-hand list with which it is most directly associated.

- | | |
|-----------------------------|----------------------|
| _____ 1. anopheles mosquito | a. bubonic plague |
| _____ 2. rat | b. influenza |
| _____ 3. tsetse fly | c. malaria |
| | d. smallpox |
| | e. sleeping sickness |

	COMPLETION	TRUE-FALSE	MULTIPLE-CHOICE	MATCHING
Situations for which effective	Information: who, when, what, where, how many	Beliefs, attitudes, superstitions Only two possibilities General survey of field	Most generally applicable in all subjects	Information: who, what, when, where
Advantages	Easy to construct Requires adequate basis for response (difficult to guess)	Easy to construct Wide sampling	Easy to score Many adaptations available Easy to give	Compact Reduces guessing Easy to construct
Limitations	Subjective scoring Inconvenient to score Emphasizes rote response	Ambiguities Guessing	Laborious to construct quality test items that really tell student and teacher what has been learned	Necessity for using single words or very brief phrases Probability of clues Probability of related errors
Precautions in constructing	Use brief response Use direct question if possible Avoid textbook language	Provide convenient arrangement for scoring Use approximately equal T and F items	Provide choices at end of statement Remember that question form is sometimes better than incomplete sentence	Keep numbers small (10 to 15 items) Provide extra responses (especially if less than 10)

Avoid grammatical clues	See that crucial element stands out in item	Avoid textbook or standardized language	Provide consistency in classification: "most men," "most battles"
Provide blank near end, if incomplete type	Avoid "traps"	Avoid making the longer response always the correct one or vice versa	Attend to mechanical arrangement, label responses in alphabetical, or some other, order
Assure scoring convenience	Avoid textbook language	Avoid grammatical clues	If there is more than one correct match for each item, be sure to be aware of this in scoring and alert students to this possibility in test instructions
Avoid overutilization (too many blanks)	Avoid clues	Use plausible distractors	
Avoid indefinite statements	Do not use subordinate clauses	Avoid ambiguity	
Only key words should be used for blank items	Do not use negatives		
Make response lines of same and of adequate length	Remember longer statement is more likely to be true	Avoid pattern, as in having the third response consistently the correct response	
Give credit to any correct response (even if not the expected one)	Make test long enough—10 or 20 items at least	Provide at least four choices	
	Avoid ambiguity		
	Avoid partly true statements		

Completion

Each statement below has a blank where a word or number is missing. Write this missing word or number in the space at the left of the statement.

The author who is credited with originating the detective story in American literature was _____.

One way to represent the world is by a map, but a more accurate way is by a _____.

Car engines should not be run in a small garage with the doors closed because the engine's exhaust contains _____.

The teacher will spend many hours making and marking tests, while students will spend many hours preparing for and taking them. Certainly then, tests should be constructed so that they provide both student and teacher with specific information about how much has been achieved in the areas being tested.

Item Analysis

The ability to construct a good test does not develop overnight; nor is it likely to be developed in the first year of teaching. However, by careful preparation of test items and by constant evaluation and revision, the classroom teacher can eventually construct tests that are valid—that is, that measure what they purport to measure.

One way of improving the quality of multiple choice items is by a procedure called "item analysis," which is a means whereby the difficulty (D) and discrimination (d) of the items can be determined. Difficulty is the ratio of students who attempted an item to those who answered it incorrectly: that is, how many answered the item correctly and how many did not. Discrimination reveals how well a particular test item discriminates between students who scored well on the item and those who did less well. The following example should clarify the procedure:

Suppose forty students took a test, on Item number 5 with four alternative choices, of which the following results were obtained:

	HIGH	LOW
a.	0	0
b.	3	2
*c.	6	3
d.	1	5
	$D = .45$	$d = .30$

Note that the top 25 percent of the papers were selected from the high group and the bottom 25 percent were selected from the low group, thus providing a total of twenty papers with which to work. It has been shown that the results obtained by using only the top 25 percent and the bottom 25 percent are

* Indicates correct answer.

sufficiently accurate for classroom purposes.² On Question number 5, choice c was the correct answer and six of the top ten students answered it correctly, whereas only three of the bottom ten students chose the correct answer. For this question, then, the discrimination index is .30. Discrimination may be computed by the formula:

$$d = \frac{RH - RL}{NH}$$

where RH is the number correct in the high group, RL is the number correct in the low group, and NH is the number in the high group. Difficulty for this item may be computed by the formula:

$$D = \frac{RH + RL}{NH + NL}$$

In the example above the difficulty level is .45. That is, nine of the twenty students in the sample groups answered this question correctly. (It should be noted that difficulty is an inverse ratio; that is, the higher the difficulty index, the less difficult the test item.)

An item analysis made for multiple-choice items can partially identify whether the item is useful, should be revised, or discarded completely. Aside from the fact that it is desirable to have some items which most of the students will answer correctly, most items should serve to differentiate between students who have achieved the desired understandings, generalizations, concepts, or skills and those who have not. Obviously, if all students answer an item correctly or if all students miss an item, then that item is not serving the purpose of discriminating among those who have or have not learned the material and under most circumstances it should be revised or eliminated. An item such as this could, however, tell the teacher a great deal about his success or failure as a teacher. However one must keep in mind that test-item difficulty may vary from class to class. In an advanced group, most students would be expected to get most items right, but in a less homogeneous group one would find the kind of score range described here. In the example item given above, it may be desirable to review choice "a" since no one checked it as the right answer. Next, decide whether it is a plausible distractor or if it contains some clue that eliminates it from consideration by this particular class. It is not likely that one could determine all poor items on the results of just one test administration. A record should be kept of the results of each test administration in order to obtain a more accurate assessment of the item. It is suggested that test items be written on a 5 × 8 card; the results of the item analysis for each class and year can be placed on the back of it. Data about class composition will help the teacher know how to balance test items in later tests.

What are the acceptable limits for discrimination and difficulty? The best difficulty index is .50. That is, half of the students answered the item correctly. A discrimination index of +.30 is suggested. The higher the discrimination index the better. It may be helpful to speculate on the relationship between difficulty

² "Short Cut Statistics for Teacher-Made Tests." Princeton, N.J.: Educational Testing Service, 1960.

and discrimination: for example, what is indicated by an item that discriminates at the —.50 level?

Giving Tests and Examinations

Many teachers find that tests and examinations pose some special problems in classroom routines. Will the examination be put on the chalkboard? Will the examination be duplicated? How will the examinations be returned?

Consideration of some of these problems should be helpful. Where schools have insufficient duplicating equipment, the teacher may have to rely primarily on the chalkboard or on oral tests. If test questions are read, students who complete the question quickly must wait until slower students finish, thus providing prime time for mischief and other distracting behavior. However, for some kinds of tests, such as true-false, fill-in, or those requiring very short answers, reading the questions may be an adequate procedure. In a room with poor acoustics, of course, this procedure may be a severe trial for students in badly located seats. A teacher who reads a test aloud must be sure to enunciate clearly, speak slowly, and pronounce words so that they are understood by the students. The teacher can pretape the test questions and while the tape is playing, draw student response. If the accent of a teacher differs markedly from some or many in the class, the test obviously will not measure their learning.

If the chalkboard is to be used, the teacher will want to have the test ready so that no time is wasted waiting for it to be written on the board. Some teachers put the test on before school, then lower a map or chart to cover it until time for the test. Other teachers put a long question on first, then, while the students are answering that one, put the remainder of the test on the board. This means, however, that the teacher is not able to observe the class while it is taking the first part of the test. In a class where the test is crucial to success, the teacher must be alert to prevent cheating. The teacher should be available to explain anything that is confusing so that students do not turn to each other and create an impression of exchanging information. The wise teacher, of course, will avoid creating any provocation or temptation that encourages cheating, a topic discussed at length later.

Some Mechanics of Test Construction

Teachers have a number of options regarding the ways in which tests are to be administered to students. Many times the teacher will duplicate the test, either on ditto masters or on stencils, and have enough copies for all students. In the typical school, the teacher will find that he is the one doing this clerical chore; hopefully, the addition of teacher aides and more clerical support will free the teacher from such tasks. Whoever does the test duplicating, however, should be doublechecked for such obvious things as grammatical errors or misspellings, and care should be observed that tests are not "leaked" to interested students. It is time-consuming to have to go through an exam before the students take it to

correct mechanical errors of this sort. Yet time after time students are penalized or are confused (and thus do less well) because of carelessness in the simple mechanics of test duplication.

Teachers with many slow readers or who suspect that their students have reading difficulties that interfere with adequate performance may find a combination of written test questions and oral reading of the questions to be valuable. For instance, the test questions can be put on a transparency and projected on a screen. At the same time, while the students are reading them in order to determine what is involved, the teacher reads them aloud. This is an aid to the poor reader whose oral vocabulary may be adequate; he can understand the question when read aloud even if he has trouble reading it. He thus has a better chance to show his competence in understanding material.

The teacher should always ascertain that the directions for the test are clear. Some of the more elaborate test designs illustrated in this chapter and the previous one may be confusing to students. The teacher should take ample time to go over directions and special instructions before anyone starts the test proper. Instructions can be put on a transparency and read to, and with, the class. Then, once the test is underway, the teacher can go around the class to answer individual problems a student may have in understanding directions or the meaning of a word or phrase. Obviously, the teacher, in providing such individual help, does it in a manner that will not disturb or interfere with the quiet and concentration expected of the class.

Length of Test

High-school classes still are typically 45 to 55 minutes long. Few traditionally organized schools allow longer periods for examinations; thus a main consideration must be the length of the period. If a test is to be an equally valid measure of the performance of each student taking it, every student should have an opportunity to consider each item on the examination. In a class with a wide range of abilities, all but the slower students will finish early and may become bored; therefore, work assignments that can be done quietly should be assigned in advance. By putting a humorous question three fourths of the way through a test the teacher can tell, by the laughter, how much time the fastest and slowest students require.

Item Types and Sequences

Tests containing a variety of item types typically have the objective type items first. Essay items are usually at the end so that it is possible to attach additional blank sheets for the answers. The problem with such an arrangement is that some students will inevitably fail to note the passing time and not allow themselves ample time for writing a coherent answer to the essay questions. If such an arrangement is used, the teacher should set specific time allotments for each section of the test and notify the students when they should be moving

on to the next section. A well-constructed multiple-choice item should require a minimum of 1 minute for consideration, assuming that the students are average or better-than-average readers. Other types of objective items, which demand recall of information, will require less time. Some teachers choose to utilize two days for testing, giving essay questions one day and objective items the next. This latter practice, however, alters the sampling power of each test.

Designing the Test

The effectiveness of good test items may be utterly destroyed by poor instructions or by a cluttered appearance. Necessary information and instructions for the students should be stated in concise, but clear, terms either on a cover sheet or on a piece of paper preceding the test items. Topics covered might be: the relative point weights of the sections of the test; any special instructions on how to record the answers; a sample item; specific factors upon which an essay question will be graded. The separate sections of the test may be designated by Roman numerals or capital letters, but the items should be numbered consecutively throughout the test, thus avoiding confusion in scoring and also facilitating discussion of the returned test. All illustrated material necessary for dealing with items, for example a chart or chemical table, should be on the same page. The same is true for a reading passage. Test items may be single spaced, but there should be double spacing between items. The alternatives or distractors should run vertically below the stem rather than horizontally across the page. For example:

Original:

Which of the following is not true of soft spots on a baby's head? (1) There is a large spot on top and a smaller one in back. (2) They are known as fontanels. (3) It takes no more than two months for them to close. (4) They occur where the bones of the skull have not grown together.

Revised:

Which of the following is not true of soft spots on a baby's head?

1. There is a large spot on top and a smaller one in back.
2. They are known as fontanels.
3. They close in two months.
4. They occur where the bones of the skull have not grown together.

There are other errors in this example. The second item is much easier to read. Also this is a negative item; the student is looking for the answer that does not fit. Attention should be called to this fact by capitalizing or underlining the negative word, or doing both. Often such items are grouped together on the test with a prefatory note to that effect. The negative in alternative (3) in this item as originally stated also unduly complicates answering even if the answer is known. Such "double negatives" should be avoided. It should always be kept in mind that confusion arising from grammatical construction in any part of an item detracts from its validity.

Administering the Test—A Note on Cheating

Pressure on students to get good grades is often a real factor in promoting cheating: getting the grade by any means becomes more important than being virtuous or acquiring genuine knowledge. Thus, if there is widespread cheating, the teacher will first want to see whether undue pressure is being put on students to get grades, no matter how. But even when this pressure is not severe, cheating continues. Objective tests are a "natural" for cheating; by glancing at a neighbor's paper, a student can quickly find an answer. It is very difficult to cheat on an essay test. Since essay tests are not always appropriate and since it is difficult to use other approaches—seating in alternate seats, for example, or having several versions of the same test—the teacher must devise other means to minimize cheating.

One of the best guarantees against cheating is the teacher's behavior during a test. At that time the wise teacher should be watching the students. He observes those who are having trouble with the material and he is ready to help an individual who does not understand the directions. At the same time, he is also watching to see that each student works on his own paper. During a test, the teacher who is concerned about cheating stations himself strategically at the back of the room. The students, with their backs to him, cannot tell whether he is watching them or not and potential cheating is thwarted. The teacher can also walk around the room, observing students' performance on test items. A test—if it is important, and if cheating is a problem—is not the time for the teacher to bury himself at his desk behind a stack of homework papers.

It is hoped, of course, that in time school systems will be able to establish true honor systems among students. Perhaps the teacher can help students evaluate the moral aspects of cheating by discussing the problem with them or he might show a film on cheating. By knowing his students so well that he can tell when the work of each one deviates markedly from what can be expected, the teacher also militates against cheating.

Returning the Tests—A Learning Experience

No test should be given unless, when it is returned, ample class time is given to a discussion of the questions, to providing correct answers, to reviewing ambiguous areas, and to making sure that students know what was to have been reported in the test. Some teachers have students do over those parts of the test which were missed, although this method may not always be the most profitable use of students' time. Of course, sometimes the material is fundamental and requires mastery by every student; then the teacher would do well to have some additional, different exercises for the students to complete. Then the student is helped to a fresh view, which may assist him in learning the material.

A test should be returned as soon as possible after the students have taken it, so that the material is still alive and important. The day the test is to be returned, the teacher should plan to use the first 10 minutes or so for supervised individual

study. Then, while the students are reading or working out problems at their desks, the teacher moves around and quietly returns each paper. This gives him an invaluable contact with each student. To Alice, who unexpectedly achieved a superior grade, the teacher can give a word of warm approval; to Harry, who turned in another poor test, the teacher can suggest the need for some special help, perhaps an after-school conference. As he returns the paper, the teacher should have some personal comment, no matter how slight, which shows that he is aware of, and interested in, each individual's progress. The rewards of this rather simple device of personalizing the returning of papers will be great for teacher and students alike.

After all papers have been returned, the teacher should call the class to order, make some general comments on the level of achievement, and perhaps place a distribution of grades on the board. Then he should ask the class for questions about any puzzling items. A rapid review of the particularly difficult questions is appropriate, to be sure that everyone understands what the answers are. After this session, the class might return to supervised study, so that students with individual problems on the test may talk privately with the teacher. It is important for the teacher to avoid public bickering over an answer. A student who thinks he has been incorrectly graded should be given time to talk individually with the teacher. Of course, the teacher should always be ready to admit when a real mistake has been made and adjust the student's grade accordingly. This kind of fairness is prized highly by students.

The procedure outlined for returning tests may be used in returning all written work. Since students have put their time and effort into an assignment, the teacher owes them recognition of their endeavors and an honest evaluation of it. Probably the worst thing a teacher can do is to require written work, then throw it away, using it merely as a way of keeping the youngsters busy. The feeling of betrayal students experience through this action will undermine the best morale teachers try to build.

Tests should be considered not only a means of evaluating progress, but moreover a particularly valuable learning experience. Post-test discussions are often tremendously fruitful in developing new insights by students who were previously puzzled or confused. The true educational value of an end-term examination is typically lost because there is no opportunity to discuss the test results with the students. Skillful planning on the part of teachers can result in examination schedules that allow end-of-term examinations to be as fully discussed in class as any other type of test.

As this chapter has indicated so far, good classroom tests, based on clear, specific objectives, are important in implementing an effective evaluation program. The remainder of the chapter will be concerned with an analysis of standardized tests, with several new and promising departures in testing, and in the following chapter a detailed discussion of grades and grading will be presented.

Standardized Tests

The post-World War II baby "boom" is now flooding colleges, and admissions officers are being bombarded with applications. The pressure of high-school students to be admitted to a "good" school is one factor in a proliferation of tests to screen applicants. High-school teachers of academic subjects are particularly aware of the importance of these tests for their students. School administrators, supervisory personnel, and teachers are concerned that the various testing programs are adding to the load of teachers and making increased demands on the time and energy of students. What effect does the testing program have on students, their teachers, and the school curriculum? Especially, it should be asked, what effect does it have on the noncollege-bound student? Is he neglected in curriculum planning? Does his teacher orient his objectives and teaching for the college bound?

Prospective high-school teachers should become familiar with such tests as the Preliminary Scholastic Aptitude Test, Achievement Tests, and Writing Sample; the College Placement Tests; and the Advanced Placement Examination.³ Certainly teachers should not teach specifically to prepare students for these examinations, but they should be familiar with any factor having influence upon the school program and curricular decisions.

Of perhaps greater significance for day-to-day teaching are the various standardized subject-matter tests. Since they are so prevalent, it is important that teachers understand the term "standardized."

1. *The process of standardizing a test begins when the testmaker tries to find out what attitudes, understandings, and skills should be represented in ninth-grade arithmetic, or tenth-grade English literature, or twelfth-grade physics. This information may be obtained from textbook analysis, examination of courses of study, or the judgment of experts.*
2. *Various test items are tried on large numbers of students, who represent many geographical areas and many kinds of schools. Those combinations of questions which are able to measure a range of achievement are retained. Usually several combinations of items are culled so that more than one form of the test can be constructed.*
3. *Specific methods for administering the test (directions, time limits) are established.*
4. *Scoring rules and keys are developed.*
5. *Norms are prepared, which make possible the comparison of individual scores with national average scores.*

Standardization is intended to secure validity, reliability, objectivity, and ease of administration. But the process of standardization does not guarantee that a

³ These are some of the more commonly used tests; they are constructed by Educational Testing Service, Princeton, New Jersey.

published test is appropriate. It is instructive to check any published "standardized" test in the most recent edition of *Buros' Mental Measurements Yearbook*.⁴ Here each test is critiqued by a number of experts.

The tentativeness with which the results of these tests must be viewed is increased when local conditions are considered in detail. A specific teacher and class may have focused attention on objectives not encompassed by the test. This may be especially true in the development of attitudes. Further, the national norms lump together all manner of students in all kinds of schools under all kinds of teachers. A class of superior capacity and environment would be expected to produce scores exceeding the performance of the national average. Classes of inferior capacity, or from deprived environments, reflect these conditions and should not receive censure for falling below that average. It is important to keep reminding oneself that in any kind of national average—whether of height, weight, physical dexterity, or achievement in academic matters—local differences, as well as individual differences, are deliberately screened out.

This is not to say that standardized achievement tests do not have their place in a modern evaluation program. Within the limitations noted, the tests indicate where a class stands in relation to other classes. The tests help to diagnose weaknesses in class and individual achievement and in teacher instruction and thus can guide future instruction. In short, used with *many other means* of evaluation, standardized tests serve a useful purpose. Only when they are considered the sole gauge of learning is there serious damage to good education.

Many teachers find it useful to check test publishers' catalogs annually and send for the new instruments in their teaching field. In this way, through sample tests purchased at nominal cost, they keep informed of the new techniques in testing.

What criteria can guide the teacher in selecting appropriate standardized tests? The following checklist should assist teachers in examining tests and their accompanying manuals:

Validity. What is the test supposed to measure? On what basis were these test goals chosen? Was it on the basis of meeting *both* individual and social needs? What research was used to determine how these needs might be met through this test content? A validity coefficient of $+ .65$ is considered a criteria for the acceptability of a test.

Reliability. Most standardized tests are available in at least two versions. What evidence is presented to show that this test consistently yields a similar score, regardless of which version is used? Test experts usually say that for individual students a test should show a reliability coefficient of about $.80$. This coefficient indicates the degree of correlation between scores on the various versions of the test. The higher the decimal fraction, the closer the test comes to yielding the same score on its various versions.

A "standardized" test for which no validity and reliability coefficients are provided should be avoided.

⁴O. K. Buros, *Mental Measurements Yearbooks*. Highland Park, N.J.: The Gryphon Press. Periodically updated; look for latest edition.

Objectivity. Good tests ensure that identical scores will be secured with equally competent scorers. Is the test key precise throughout, so that no doubt exists about the correct response?

Ease of administration and scoring. The directions in the manual should be so clear and easily read by at least 99 percent of the students that the test can be given with ease, and under comparable circumstances, each time it is used. Does the manual tell exactly how to give and score the test?

Norms. The manual or a supplement should list average or median scores earned by students who have taken the test. There should be an indication that these norms have been regularly revised and are currently applicable; the character of the school populations from which the norms were derived should be indicated. Preferably, the norms should be given for each tenth of the school year, since achievement obviously varies from September to June.

Standardized tests, besides showing achievement in relation to other large groups of students, can provide the teacher with good suggestions to apply to his own homemade tests. The teacher can find out, for example, how best to word certain kinds of test items. The standardized test has been tried on many students, and the teacher can therefore assume that the average middle-class student will understand the test items as constructed. If his school population is deviant from middle-class suburbia, however, the teacher should be very careful about test use and generalizations about test questions.

A teacher could select from a standardized test some items to use as models, but modify them to suit his own class. Standardized tests are copyrighted so a teacher cannot just "lift" an item and use it himself.

Evaluation in the Areas of Values and Attitudes

In recent years educators have been increasingly concerned with some of the more intangible outcomes of education: are students' attitudes changed by course content and experiences? What is the pattern of social understanding of young people? Out of such inquiries have come some stimulating evaluation tools.

Mayhew has noted:

It is paradoxical that formal education postulates as its most important outcomes such things as attitudes, values, feelings, appreciations, and opinions. Yet, when it appraises its outcomes it typically seeks evidence of knowledge, the power to manipulate, the ability to think critically, and the techniques of analysis and synthesis.⁵

There is widespread belief that if cognitive objectives are developed there will be a corresponding development of appropriate affective behaviors. Accumulating evidence questions this assumption.

⁵ Lewis B. Mayhew, "Measurement of Noncognitive Objectives," *Evaluation in the Social Studies*, Harry D. Berg (ed.). Washington, D.C.: National Council for the Social Studies (Thirty fifth Yearbook), 1965, p. 115.

Commentators on contemporary United States' society find much that disturbs them. Some feel that Americans have lost their traditional values. Particularly, some charge that teen-agers are a debauched group of pseudosophisticates who will consummate the ruin of the country. As is often the case, the schools are blamed. While some solace may be found in the fact that Socrates felt the same way about the youth of Athens, Mayhew's comment serves to illustrate the current dilemma. Teachers are concerned with values; yet, in a diverse, pluralistic society, the immediate question is "Whose values?" As Mayhew points out, "one essential component [of American culture] is the faith that no one's beliefs should be indoctrinated upon others."⁶ However, one's beliefs, attitudes, values, and personality characteristics do affect student learning. *Taxonomy of Educational Objectives, Handbook II: Affective Domain*⁷ is one effort to help the teacher in the assessment of these more elusive and sensitive areas.

Evaluation of Inquiry and Reflective-Thinking Skills

As noted in Chapter 8, there has been a re-emphasis in education upon the development of scholarly methods of inquiry and reflective-thinking skills. The concern here is with the evaluation of success in teaching for the development of these skills. Examples of a procedure to evaluate skills in several subject areas are given in the following paragraphs.

Problem: What is it that induces birds to migrate?

Hypothesis II. Young birds learn to migrate south in the autumn by accompanying their parents.

Each of the following items state observational or experimental facts. For Items 8 and 9 mark space

1. If the fact or facts tend to support Hypothesis II;
2. If the fact or facts tend to refute Hypothesis II;
3. If the fact or facts are irrelevant to Hypothesis II.

8. In making the trip from northern Canada to the Argentine, adult Golden Plovers fly in groups due south from Labrador, above the Atlantic Ocean, 1000 miles from the eastern coast of North America, thence over Brazil to the Argentine. The young Golden Plovers fly in groups by way of the Mississippi Valley and over the Gulf of Mexico, thence over Bolivia and Peru to the Argentine. On their return trip the old and young alike take the Mississippi Valley route.
9. Cowbirds build no nests of their own but lay eggs in the nests of some 30 species of other birds; here the eggs are incubated, hatched, and the young reared by these fosterparents. When the first migratory trip is completed the young cowbirds are found in the South neither among their true parents

⁶ Mayhew, p. 116.

⁷ David R. Krathwohl, Benjamin S. Bloom, and Bertram B. Masis, *Taxonomy of Educational Objectives, Handbook II: Affective Domain*. New York: David McKay Company, Inc., 1956.

- nor scattered among the 30 different destinations of their fosterparents, but instead in one locality occupied predominantly by their own kind. [2]
10. In the light of the facts given in items 8 and 9, what is the status of Hypothesis II at this point?

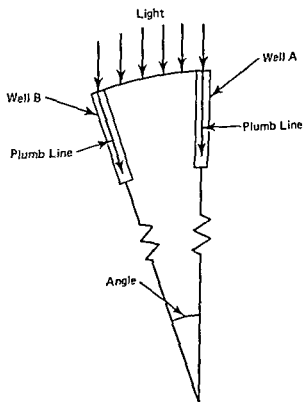
1. It is established as probably true.
- *2. It is refuted as probably false.
3. It remains as much unsettled as at the outset.

* Indicates the correct answer.⁸

Testing for Understanding of Science Methodology

To determine whether students have an understanding of science methodology it may be desirable to have them go through an analysis of a relatively simple classical experiment performed by the ancients in an attempt to solve a problem. The following situation will serve as an example.

Items 1 through 9 are based upon the data in the following situation. Correct responses are indicated by an asterisk.



Some of the ancient Greeks knew that the shadow of the earth on the moon during an eclipse was round.

⁸ Clarence H. Nelson, *Let's Build Quality into our Science Tests* Washington, DC: National Science Teachers Association, 1955, pp. 11-12.

They were also aware that the mast of a ship approaching shore was visible before the ship was visible.

So, in spite of the prevailing belief to the contrary, they presented the idea that the earth is a sphere. One Greek reasoned that if the earth is spherical its radius should be calculated.

In order to test this he located a water well at A, where the sun shines directly down into the well at noon on the longest day of the year.

He tested the well with a plumb line and found that it had been dug vertically.

He then tested a second well (Well B) several miles north of Well A, and found that it too had been dug vertically.

He reasoned that if the earth were flat, no shadow should be cast on the north side of Well B, provided Well A is due south of Well B; but if the earth is convex a shadow should be cast on the north wall of Well B at noon on the longest day.

He found that a shadow was cast on the north wall of Well B when the sun was shining directly into Well A.

He measured the angle between the shadow and the plumb line and from this determined the angle that would be formed at the center of the earth.

Knowing the distance between the wells, he was able to calculate the circumference of the earth.

1. What is the major problem (if any) in this situation?
 - a. Are all wells that are dug vertically into the earth parallel to each other?
 - b. What evidence is there that the earth is flat?
 - c. What evidence is there that the earth is spherical?
 - *d. What is the radius and circumference of the earth?
2. Which of the following is given in the data and relevant to the solution of the problem?
 - a. Most people at that time believed that the earth was flat.
 - *b. A shadow was cast at noon on the north wall of Well B while no shadow was cast on the wall of Well A.
 - c. All vertically dug wells are strictly parallel to each other.
 - d. If the earth's surface is curved (convex) no shadow will be cast at noon in any well anywhere.
 - e. All of the above are given, but none is relevant to the solution of the problem.
3. "... if the earth is spherical its radius could be calculated."
 - a. This was an assumption that, if made, would yield an erroneous deduction.
 - *b. This constituted an assumption that would be basic to the solution of the problem.
 - c. This was a fact that, according to the data, had been established by circumnavigation.
 - d. This was an assumption that, although interesting, was unnecessary to the solution of the problem.
 - e. This was a deduction that could be made from the data, but had no bearing on the solution of the problem.
4. "Some of the ancient Greeks knew that during an eclipse the shadow of the earth on the moon was round." This statement is

- a. a deduction relevant to the solution of the problem.
 - b. a deduction irrelevant to the solution of the problem.
 - c. an assumption necessary to the solution of the problem.
 - *d. an observation that had a bearing on the solution of the problem.
 - e. an assumption that did not contribute to the solution of the problem.
5. The prevailing belief (of the majority of the people) at the time was that the earth was flat. This statement is
- *a. given in the data, but is irrelevant to the solution of the problem.
 - b. given in the data and is relevant to the solution of the problem.
 - c. an erroneous deduction from the data.
 - d. an assumption from the data necessary to the solution of the problem.
 - e. an assumption from the data, but unnecessary to the solution to the problem.
6. Well A had been dug vertically.
- *a. This is given in the data and is relevant to the solution of the problem.
 - b. This is given in the data, but is irrelevant to the solution of the problem.
 - c. This can be deduced from the data and is relevant to the solution of the problem.
 - d. This can be deduced from the data, but is irrelevant to the solution of the problem.
 - e. This is an erroneous deduction from the data.
7. If the earth were flat, no shadow should be cast on the north side of Well B, provided Well A is due south of Well B; but if the earth is convex a shadow should be cast on the north wall of Well B at noon on the longest day. These two statements
- a. represent extension of the data which cannot be justified.
 - b. are assumptions that, if made, would lead to an illogical deduction.
 - c. are assumptions that, although interesting in themselves, are unnecessary to the solution of the problem.
 - *d. are assumptions necessary to the solution of the problem.
 - e. represent erroneous deductions.
8. The angle between the shadow and the plumb line in Well B was determined by
- a. inductive reasoning.
 - b. testing a hypothesis.
 - *c. observation.
 - d. assumption.
 - e. analogy.
9. How was the circumference of the earth determined?
- a. It was found by observation.
 - b. It was given in the data.
 - c. It was stumbled upon by a "happy accident."
 - d. It was calculated by measuring the earth's shadow on the moon.
 - *e. It was calculated by measuring the angle of the sun's rays.*

*Figure 13.1 and test items 1 through 9 reproduced by permission from Clarence H. Nelson, "Let's Build Quality into our Science Tests. Washington, D.C.: National Science Teachers Association, 1958.

*An Example from Mathematics*¹⁰

Directions: In Part B of the following, the questions and answers are based on the information given. Each question has five possible answers, but there may be as many as five right answers for a question. For some questions there will be only one right answer, while others may have two, three, four or five right answers. Put an X in the answer box corresponding to each right answer.

Section I

The rules for addition in the mod 7 system are the same as those for ordinary addition except that, if the sum is larger than 6, the sum is divided by 7, the quotient discarded, and the remainder is used in place of the ordinary sum. Thus, $6 + 5 = 4 \pmod{7}$. The rules for multiplication in the mod 7 system are also like those of ordinary multiplication except that, if the product is larger than 6, the product is divided by 7 and the remainder is used in place of the ordinary product. Thus: $(6)(3) = 4 \pmod{7}$.

Briefly, $a = b \pmod{7}$ means $a = b + 7k$ for some integer K .

Sample Questions on Section II (Part B of the test)

55. The mod 7 system requires
 - a. an infinite number of numerals.
 - b. fractions.
 - c. negative numbers.
 - d. 7 numbers.
 - e. 14 numbers.
56. What is the value of x in the expression: $2x = 3 \pmod{7}$?
 - a. $x = 5/2$.
 - b. $x = 3$.
 - c. $x = 5$.
 - d. $x = 6$.
 - e. $x = 7$.
57. $a = b \pmod{6}$ means
 - a. $a - b$ is divisible by 6.
 - b. $a = b \pmod{7}$.
 - c. $6a = b$.
 - d. $b = a + 6k$.
 - e. $6b = a^3$.

An Example of Inductive Thinking from Social Studies

Read the following quotation from Alexander Hamilton in *The Federalist*, October 27, 1787:

So numerous indeed and so powerful are the causes which serve to give a false bias to the judgment, that we, upon many occasions, see wise and good men on the wrong as well as on the right side of questions of the first magnitude to society. This circumstance, if duly attended to, would furnish a lesson of moderation to those who are ever so much persuaded of their being in the right in any controversy.

¹⁰ Science Aptitude Examination, Science Service Incorporated, Science Talent Search, 1965.

And a further reason for caution, in this respect, might be drawn from the reflection that we are not always sure that those who advocate the truth are influenced by purer principles than their antagonists. Ambition, avarice, personal animosity, party opposition and many other motives not more laudable than these, are apt to operate as well upon those who support as those who oppose the right side of a question. . . . In politics as in religion, it is equally absurd to aim at making proselytes by fire and sword. Heresies in either can rarely be cured by persecution.

On the basis of the information provided by the above quotation, mark each of the following statements.

1. If it can be inferred that Hamilton would have agreed with the statement.
 2. If it can be inferred that Hamilton would have disagreed with the statement.
 3. If no inference can be drawn about Hamilton's probable opinion.
- . . .
23. Compulsory loyalty oaths are the best protection against subversive activities.
 24. All reasonable men will reach the same conclusions when faced with the same problem.
 25. A man's political affiliations are a reliable proof of his principles.
 26. Political groups are apt to include men of widely differing motives and philosophies.
 27. Government should be based upon the principle of separation of powers.¹¹

Drawing Warranted Conclusions

In drawing warranted conclusions one must look over all the data he has available and decide the meaning of the data. That is, he must ask himself, "What can I conclude on the basis of these data?" He must be careful that his conclusions are warranted: that he does not go beyond what his data will support. It is obvious, of course, that the reliability of information is important in drawing warranted conclusions.

Directions: In the following exercise, you are to decide whether the source of the information would be reliable or whether bias or emotional factors would make the source unreliable. If you think the source would be reliable you are to place an R (for "reliable") in the margin at the left. If you think the source would be unreliable you are to place a U (for "unreliable") in the margin.

1. You have the assignment of writing a paper on the cause of the explosion that sank the *Maine*. Which of the sources listed below would be reliable and which would be unreliable?
 - _____ a. A book written on the subject by Captain Sigbee, commanding officer of the *Maine* in 1899.
 - _____ b. The inspection reports of the chief safety officer of the *Maine* made the day before the explosion.
 - _____ c. Accounts of the sinking appearing in the *New York Journal*.

¹¹ *A Test of Critical Thinking in Social Science*. Washington, D.C.: American Council on Education, 1951.

- _____d. A statement made by Fitzhugh Lee, American consul in Havana.
- _____c. A statement made by the leader of the Cuban rebels.
- _____f. The official report of the committee assigned to investigate the sinking.

2. Consider the following statements to be true.

- a. The *Maine's* boilers were operating on low pressure as the ship was at anchor.
- b. The official report of the investigating committee stated that the explosion appeared to come from outside the ship as the plates were buckled inward, but that this could have resulted from the ship settling on the bottom.
- c. The Spanish government in Madrid was weak and having problems at home when the *Maine* was sunk.
- d. The Cuban rebels had been trying to get the United States into the war against Spain for three years.

Considering the above statements to be true, which of the following statements would you accept as the basic position in your paper? Underline the position you would use.

- 1. The explosion was probably accidental.
- 2. The Spanish blew up the *Maine* because of United States' interference in her affairs.
- 3. The Cuban rebels blew up the *Maine* to get the United States into the war.
- 4. Circumstantial evidence would lead one to suspect the Cubans as they had most to gain, but the evidence is inconclusive.

These intriguing examples of departures from traditional tests are developed primarily by research workers but rarely by classroom teachers. They are difficult to construct, and questions of validity and reliability are much more likely to be raised, although the same questions could be asked with equal pertinence about the traditional test patterns. If a teacher seeks to depart from the usual patterns and evoke newer and perhaps more significant evaluation tools of his own, the working suggestions given below will be helpful.

Build a test file of questions and ideas. By continuously writing test items instead of waiting until the last moment, the teacher will be able to use varying combinations to reveal more adequately his students' strengths and weaknesses.

Use students to help build tests. Often a teacher can ask interested students to prepare new kinds of test items. These can be filed and used for current and future classes.

Try out new testing devices. A teacher can try out some new testing device and invite the class to join the experiment; thus students learn not to be fearful of a new situation. Their own reactions to, criticisms of, and comments on the "new" type of examination will help the teacher build better tests.

Keep abreast of the professional literature in general, and that of the special subject field in particular. The increasing professional concern over evaluation is seen in many stimulating descriptions of new approaches to evaluation, which are found repeatedly in the professional literature.

Some exciting ideas in evaluating individual ability have resulted from the

need in the armed services to select special kinds of individuals for special jobs.¹² Adaptations of some of these ideas to evaluation in teacher education suggest possible lines of development for high-school classroom use.¹³

RECOMMENDED READING

- Ahmann, J. Stanley. *Evaluating Pupil Growth* (2d ed.). Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1964. A completely current presentation of the construction and use of various tests in all aspects of formal education.
- American Educational Research Association. "Educational and Psychological Testing," *Review of Educational Research*, Vol. 35, February 1965, No. 1. Includes articles on the field of educational testing aimed at bringing up-to-date the status of research in the area. Includes useful bibliographies.
- Anastasi, Anne. "Culture-Fair Testing," *Education Digest*, 30, April 1965, 9-11.
- (ed.). *Testing Problems in Perspective*. Washington, D.C.: American Council on Education, 1966. An anthology of 58 papers presented at an international conference on testing. Some chapters may be too technical for the beginner, but the discussions of issues in testing will be of interest.
- Barnette, W. Leslie, Jr. *Readings in Psychological Tests and Measurements*. Dorsey Press, 1964. Selected readings to supplement a basic text in measurement and testing. Many individual selections will interest the beginning teacher.
- Berg, Harry E. (ed.). *Evaluation in Social Studies*. Washington, D.C.: National Council for the Social Studies, 1965. (Thirty-fifth Yearbook). Provides a comprehensive treatment of testing in the social studies for the classroom teacher.
- Black, Hillel. *They Shall Not Pass*. New York: William Morrow & Company, Inc., 1963. A cynical and somewhat overstated analysis of grading, testing, and sorting students. Readable and controversial.
- Bloom, Benjamin S. (ed.). *Taxonomy of Educational Objectives, Handbook I: Cognitive Domain*. New York: David McKay Company, Inc., 1956. (Originally published by Longmans, Green & Co., Inc., New York.) A classification of educational objectives by which to guide learning and to evaluate the attainment of objectives. Contains sample questions from each level of objectives.
- Campbell, Joel. "Testing of Culturally Different Groups," *ETS Research Bulletin*. Princeton, N.J.: Educational Testing Service, 1963.
- Chase, Clinton I., and H. Glenn Ludlow. *Readings in Educational and Psychological Measurement*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1966. A particularly provocative collection of essays discussing the critical issues in testing and evaluation.
- Coffman, William E., and Dana Kurfman. "A Comparison of Two Methods of Reading Essay Examinations," *American Educational Research Journal*, V, January 1968, 99-108. A research report illustrating the difficulty of obtaining reliable scoring of essay questions.
- Downie, N. M. *Fundamentals of Measurement: Techniques and Practices* (2d ed.). New York, Oxford University Press, 1966. A good introductory text with exten-

¹² Office of Strategic Services, *The Assessment of Men*. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1948; and Henry Harris, *The Group Approach to Leadership Testing*. London: Routledge & Kegan Paul, Ltd., 1949.

¹³ Jean D. Grambs. "Some New Examination Patterns in Teacher Education," *Educational Administration and Supervision*, 36, November 1950, pp. 403-410.

- sive discussion of the statistical aspects of test construction; also sections on achievement and intelligence tests.
- Ebel, Robert L. *Measuring Educational Achievement*. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1965. One of the most widely used texts in educational measurement designed for preservice and in-service.
- . "The Social Consequences of Educational Testing." *College Board Review*, 52, Winter 1964, 10-14.
- Engelhart, Max D. *Improving Classroom Testing, What Research Says to the Teacher*. (No. 31) Prepared by the American Educational Research Association, Washington, D.C., 1964. Research on testing with emphasis upon the preparation and use of teacher-made tests.
- Findley, Warren G. *The Impact and Improvement of School Testing Programs*. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1963. (Sixty-second Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education.) Excellent chapters written by experts provide insight into testing as an aspect of the total institution. Many issues raised are highly pertinent to the secondary teacher.
- Fishman, Joshua, and others. "Guidelines for Testing Minority Group Children," *Journal of Social Issues*, 20, April 1964, 129-145.
- Garrett, Henry A. *Testing for Teachers* (2d ed.). New York: American Book Company, 1965. A concise text in the use of mental tests in schools including discussion of the construction of classroom tests and the use of mental tests in guidance and counseling.
- Goslin, David A. *The Search for Ability*. New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1963. Describes the current state of the testing movement in the United States and examines ability testing in terms of its possible social, legal, and emotional impact on society.
- Gross, Martin L. *The Brain Watchers*. New York: Random House, Inc., 1962. Written for a lay audience, this book describes the "testing industry" with a particularly skeptical look at the uses of personality testing in business and industry. Interesting.
- Hedges, William D. *Testing and Evaluation for Sciences in the Secondary School*. Belmont, Calif.: Wadsworth Publishing Company, 1966. A practical book designed to aid in the preparation of better science tests in high schools and junior high schools.
- Journal of the National Association of Women Deans and Counselors*. "Interpretation of Tests," 23, January 1960, No. 2. This issue is devoted to testing and interpreting test results.
- Krathwohl, David R., Benjamin S. Bloom, and Bertram B. Masis. *Taxonomy of Educational Objectives, Handbook II: Affective Domain*. New York: David McKay Company, Inc., 1964. Designed to give some direction in the difficult area of testing beliefs, attitudes, and values.
- Ricks, James S. "On Telling Parents about Test Results," *Test Service Bulletin* No. 54. New York: The Psychological Corporation. Presents the position that parents should be told whatever the schools know in an understandable fashion.
- Sanders, Norris M. *Classroom Questions: What Kinds?* New York: Harper & Row, Publishers, 1966. Based on the Bloom Taxonomy, this book seeks to provide the teacher with a basis for questioning not only for the purpose of testing but also for the difficult area of good classroom questions to elicit discussion.
- Smith, Fred M., and Sam Adams. *Educational Measurement for the Classroom*

Teacher. New York: Harper & Row Publishers, 1966. A book on testing written especially for the classroom teacher with useful annotated reading lists at the end of each chapter.

Stanley, Julian C. *Measurement in Today's Schools* (4th ed.). Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1964. A compact presentation that provides a clear understanding of measurement and evaluation principles without requiring a background in statistics or any mathematics beyond simple arithmetic.

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A Grade by Any Other Name

*grading and reporting
student progress*

14

Every teacher is involved in the grading process. Secondary schools insist on a semester, term, and year grade for every student in every class. Grading, however, is the task most disliked by most teachers. Nobody is satisfied with the system; everybody would like some kind of a change. But hardly anybody knows what kind. Some teachers want only slight modifications of the usual A-B-C-D system, while others plead for more extensive adjustments to individual ability. The beginning teacher must develop an understanding of the place of grades in the total evaluation process so that he can intelligently adapt himself to different ways of marking and grading students. Whatever the variations in practice, the problems, issues, and challenges of evaluation persist.

The Grading Process in Action

Grades cause the student to regard the teacher, by and large, as a judge: one who hands down the sentence of "success" or "failure." Students soon develop feelings of helplessness if not hopelessness. When asked how he did on a test, the average student might reply, "I don't know, I'll have to wait until I get my paper back." The whole process of grading is a deep, dark mystery and the teacher is the only person who has the clues. Students remark, "Why, I know I did a very good job on that report; I don't see why I only got a C."

Or "I certainly was surprised when I got an A on that paper—I hardly spent any time on it, and personally I didn't think it was very good."

Or "No matter how hard you try in Mr. Albert's class you just can't get more than a B." No wonder many students never know what good workmanship means; they have never had to judge their own work.

As colleges become more and more crowded, with ever increasing numbers of students clamoring for admission, pressure mounts on students to do well on various standardized tests and also to obtain top grades in high-school subjects.

Marks aren't everything, but in this world you need them and they'd better be good. If we're grade conscious, that's okay—we have to be . . .

The above statement by an eleventh grader illustrates the feeling of many high-school students. The grades obtained during the last four years of secondary school are recorded on the official record of the student for transmission to colleges, and it is these grades that count in determining who is admitted where. For many students, therefore, the emphasis is on the grade attained and not on the learning that is allegedly represented by the grade.

The process of dividing students into tracks or levels or ability groupings affects the grading system. Since competition for grades—translated: preferably an A, but definitely no lower than a B—is the main concern, and since presumably the "best students" are all together and the average or below average are all together, then it follows that the average and below average should not get A's, nor should the "best students" get C's, because this would confuse the system. How could a "best student" explain a C to a college admissions officer? In some schools, the students in the lower tracks or levels are not permitted to receive anything more than a C, or passing grade.¹ "After all, a grade has to stand for something!"

What are the psychological implications of such a system? Some of the female "best students" are not college bound, but they must pretend to be going to college in order to keep up with their social peers. Being in a section labeled "academically talented" or "accelerated" or "honors" tells the students they can learn, but it does not guarantee them anything. Admittance to such a section is only the beginning. A course load of five "solid" subjects a day sets a killing pace for adolescents. They rush from class to class on a schedule that in some schools, allows them as few as 3 minutes between classes. And what is it all for? To get the grade!

The prods of uncertainty, anxiety, and the ever-present fear of potential public failure creates an insecurity in the very able student which is one of the more noticeable mental health hazards in today's secondary schools.²

Another result of the pressure for grades is further pressure to do well on examinations by whatever means necessary—including cheating. As one student

¹ Jean D. Grambs, *Schools, Scholars, and Society*. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice Hall, Inc., 1965, p. 94.

² Abraham J. Tannenbaum, *Adolescent Attitudes toward Academic Excellence*. New York: Teachers College Press, Columbia University, 1962.

put it, "Which is more important, the morality of cheating or getting into college?"³

But this is only one side of the story. What about those students who will not "play the game"? What about those for whom obtaining a grade is not motivating? If placement in an "honors" section enhances the self-image of the student so placed, then it is logical that the self-image of the low-ability student is also reinforced—but in a different way—especially since he is likely to have been in a low section in the elementary school as well. The most obvious consequence of such placement is to convince the low-placed student that he cannot succeed at school tasks—meaning he cannot learn. Therefore he does not learn. He may sit quietly and remain in school for other reasons, or he may choose to drop out of school altogether.⁴ Even those students who stay in school for other reasons—perhaps because of friends, activities, or athletics—will find pressure to get the grade because many schools forbid participation in activities if a student's grades are not good. The reasoning is that if the student cannot work hard enough to do well in his regular classes he obviously does not have time for any "extra" activity. One can see the irony of this in schools with track systems where certain sections are doomed to low grades, no matter what their efforts or the caliber of some of their work, so that these students are thus automatically excluded from the type of adolescent activity that might be positively motivating.

The Myth of the Absolute Standard

In some never-never land teachers may be able to judge absolutely whether students merit 40 percent or 57 percent or 100 percent—or D or C— or B+. It would be most convenient if teachers could be that confident about the meaning of a grade. But research and experience show that an A to one teacher may be a C to another. Consider some of the sources of variation in student grades. Aside from the fact that all students, even in the same track or level, do not take the same courses, teachers use different criteria in assigning grades. There are variations in the examinations themselves; some teachers will use objective tests, some will use essay tests, others will use a combination of the two. Further, some teachers grade on class participation. Still others will require term papers as a major part of the grade. Students will vary in their ability to perform in different areas, and thus their grade will be higher or lower according to their ability or lack of it in the areas that count. Then, some teachers like to be considered "tough" graders. New teachers are especially prone to employ "tough" grading procedures. Part of this stems from their idealism—a desire to

³ Newsweek, March 21, 1966, p. 60; see also Frederick M. Ranbringer and H. C. Rowe (eds.), *The Individual and Education*, Part III, "Pressures To Conform." New York: Crowell-Collier and Macmillan, Inc., 1968, p. 36; see also Peter M. Awadloff, "How to Cheat Your Way into the College of Your Choice," *Eye*, 2, January 1969, 52-53.

⁴ Edgar Z. Friedenberg, "An Ideology of School Withdrawal," *The School Dropout*. Washington, D C : National Education Association, 1964, pp. 25-39.

upgrade the whole system—but part of it is an attempt to gain their colleagues' respect. Peer pressure on the teacher is a fact of the teacher's life which new teachers are likely to underestimate.

Correcting a set of math papers, Mr. Jones did not find many perfect ones. However, there were a few students who had managed to get all the answers. "I don't grade them on neatness—after all, I'm not a nursemaid," he said.

Mrs. Smith was burning the midnight oil. The math papers before her were a real problem. Here was Bill: all his answers were correct. She expected this; his father was an engineer and drilled Bill nightly on mathematics. But what a mess his paper was! Someone should tell him mere ability to get the right answer was not the only thing to be sought. She marked his examples as correct, but took off a half grade because his paper was so untidy.

Mr. Black was grading math papers in which he required the students to show every process by which they arrived at the answer. Here was Jane. She never seemed to get the right answer, but she did know the right process. It was always a matter of simple arithmetic. Actually, she was skilled in solving problems; but somewhere she had been deficient in the simple combinations. How could he grade her down? Someday she would excel all of them. He felt he must put an A after her name because she had shown a real flash of brilliance in working out an original solution to a complex equation. But what was he going to do about her arithmetic?

Thus even in mathematics, the most "exact" of all subjects, we find considerable variation among teachers. Where the teacher is absorbed in obtaining the right answer, there is little opportunity for students to experience the right process. If mathematics can develop logical methods of problem solving and science can develop a reliance on scientific method for arriving at solutions, then teachers must focus on the way to get in and out of a problem. Too often, the overemphasis on the one correct answer encourages lazy thinking, cheating, and merely mechanical manipulation of arbitrary and meaningless symbols. Accuracy should be rewarded, but this one skill should not be exalted above the real and important other skills that science and mathematics can develop.

Grading on "the Curve"

As an attempt to get away from the absolute standard of assigning grades, many teachers have used the "normal curve." Indiscriminate use of the curve system of grading, however, is as unfair to students and as arbitrary as the absolute standard. The curve referred to is what statisticians term the "normal curve" or the curve into which measurements of any natural phenomenon, if there is an infinite and random sample, would fall. Within one standard deviation each side of the mean would fall about 68 percent of a normal group. Within two standard deviations of the mean would fall about 95 percent of the popula-

tion, and 99 percent of the population would fall within three standard deviations of the mean. In actual practice the curve is modified for the purpose of assigning grades so that scores 1.5 standard deviations above the mean receive a grade of A while scores 1.5 standard deviations below the mean receive a grade of F. Scores between $+ .5$ and $+ 1.5$ receive the grade of B, while those $- .5$ to $- 1.5$ receive Ds. Scores $+ .5$ to $- .5$ receive Cs. It is, of course, at the premise of having a random and infinite sample that the concept of the normal curve breaks down for classroom use. Few, if any, secondary-school classrooms are large enough, or random enough, in their population to represent a true "normal curve" of ability or achievement. With the widespread use of grouping by design or self-selection in electives the likelihood of finding such a truly random population is further reduced. Thus grading "on the curve" will do most students a disservice if adhered to rigidly.

Discrimination in Grading

Many teachers do look for objective measures to assist in determining grades. But no matter how "objective" a device may appear, the human equation cannot be completely eliminated. The individual teacher's own judgment includes one item or concept and excludes another even in an objective test. It is a matter of individual decision, for example, whether spelling will be counted in a completion examination—which, on the surface, appears completely objective.

This seems very discouraging. On what basis can teachers grade? Students and parents need an indication of progress, but as yet there is no entirely satisfactory way to make such an indication. Many ways of grading and evaluating pupils exist, and some are superior to others. The point to be made is that one must take a close look at the fallacy of the absolute standard and the normal curve. Then he may be ready to consider the ways and means of protecting, supporting, and helping students through an evaluation process that should be built into all secondary-school teaching and learning.

Studies show rather conclusively that girls get higher schools marks and grades than boys, although boys have average IQ scores similar to, if not higher than, those of girls. One study in Cleveland revealed that boys had a statistically significant greater rate of failure than girls, the chance that boys would fail being $2\frac{1}{4}$ times that of girls' chances. Both men and women teachers tended to give higher grades to girls. The study also showed that teachers who were considered poor teachers by their administrators tended to fail more students, especially more boys.⁵ Another study revealed a similar trend: girls, because of the bias in grading, were consistently better able to get into the honor society than boys.⁶ Still another investigator discovered that although girls excelled boys according to teachers' marks, boys excelled girls by almost the same percentage

⁵ M. C. Schinnerer, "Failure Ratio. 2 Boys to 1 Girl," *Clearing House*, 18, January 1944, 264-270.

⁶ Clifford Swenson, "Packing the Honor Society," *Clearing House*, 16, May 1942, 521-524; and "The Girls Are Teacher's Pets," *Clearing House*, 17, May 1943, 537-540.

when an achievement-test score and an IQ score were used as the base.⁷ Underachievement among boys occurs at a far higher rate than among girls,⁸ and sex is also associated with the achievement or lack of it among the gifted.⁹

Teacher definitions of the student role are likely to include more characteristics of the female sex rôle in secondary school, even though there are now more men than women teachers. In fact, men and women teachers demonstrate the same anti-male bias in their grading.¹⁰ The model of a good student is apt to be a female model derived from the teacher's own early indoctrination in his or her elementary school.¹¹ If this is true, then for the male deviation from the student role actually constitutes a confirmation of his masculinity.¹²

A similar kind of discrimination often operates against students from minority groups and those associated with low socioeconomic levels. A well-documented study of a typical midwestern community revealed that children from the lowest social class were given most of the low grades and had most of the failures; whereas students from higher social-class groups had no extremely low grades and hardly any failures.¹³ And this in the face of data that showed that IQ scores were not unduly weighted toward the top. "Although intelligence was associated significantly with class position, the degree of association was not high enough to account for the concentration of 'failures' in the lowest socioeconomic group."¹⁴

In a devastating research study it was found that teachers responded to behavior clues that resulted in their overgrading some students and undergrading others. A group of flunking students were given special laboratory tutoring via programmed learning and other instructional aids in English and mathematics. These students, typical of many disadvantaged, were able, within a few months, to gain a whole year in these subjects. However, back in the regular classrooms, these students were still barely passing. The researchers visited the classrooms. They observed the behavior of the students who were passing and that of their

⁷ Beeman N. Phillips, "An Analysis of Factors Associated with Anxiety and Their Relation to the School Achievement of Adolescents." (Paper read at The American Education Research Association meeting, Chicago, 1961.)

⁸ S. L. Hammer, "School Underachievement in the Adolescent: A Review of 73 Cases," *Pediatrics*, 40, September 1967, 373-381. For a summary review see David C. Lavin, *The Prediction of Academic Performance*. New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1965. "Sex Differences in Academic Performance," pp. 128-131; 135.

⁹ Ralph D. Norman, and others, "Age, Sex, IQ and Achievement Patterns in Achieving and Nonachieving Gifted Children," *Exceptional Children*, 29, November 1962, 116-123.

¹⁰ R. W. Edmiston, "Do Teachers Show Partiality?" *Peabody Journal of Education*, 20, January 1943, 234-238; see also "Research Clues: Do Teachers' Values Influence Their Grading?" *Today's Education*, 57, September 1968, 69.

¹¹ Donald D. O'Dowd, and David C. Beardslee, "The Student Image of the School Teacher," *Phi Delta Kappan*, 42, March 1961, 250-254.

¹² David E. Lavin, *The Prediction of Academic Performance*. New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1965, pp. 130-131.

¹³ August B. Hollingshead, *Elmtown's Youth*. New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1949, pp. 172-173.

¹⁴ Hollingshead, p. 175.

own group. They found that there were three groups of students. We'll call them: *Bright-Eyes*, "*Scaredy-Cats*," and *Dummies*.

Bright-Eyes had perfected the trick of:

1. "Eyeballing" the instructor at all times, from the minute he entered the room
2. Never ducking their eyes away when the instructor glanced at them
3. Getting the instructor to call on them when they wanted, without raising their hands
4. Even making the instructor go out of his way to call on someone else to "give others a chance" (especially useful when *bright-eyes* themselves are uncertain of the answer)
5. Readily admitting ignorance so as not to bluff—but in such a way that it sounds as though ignorance is rare
6. Asking many questions

Scaredy-Cats (the middle group)

1. Looked toward the instructor, but were afraid to let him "catch their eyes"
2. Asked few questions and gave the impression of being "underachievers"
3. Appeared uninvolved and had to be "drawn out," hence were likely to be criticized for "inadequate participation"

Dummies (no matter how much they really knew)

1. Never looked at the instructor
2. Never asked questions
3. Were intransigent about volunteering information of any kind in class

To make matters worse, the tests in school were not standardized and not given nearly as frequently as those given in the laboratory. School test-scores were open to teacher bias. The classroom behavior of students counted a lot toward their class grades. There was no doubt that teachers were biased against the *Dummies*. The researcher concluded that no matter how much knowledge a *Dummy* gained on his own, his grades in school were unlikely to improve unless he could somehow change his image into a *Bright-Eyes*.

The researchers then worked with the failing students to teach them the tricks of response learned by the *Bright-Eyes*. As they learned to raise their hands and to "eyeball" the teacher their grades went up. In summary, one student commented:

Don't try to do it all at once. You'll shock the teacher and make it tough for yourself. Begin slowly. Work with a friend and help each other. Do it like a game. Like exercising with weights—it takes practice but it's worth it.¹⁵

The teacher will want to ask, "Is the poor grade associated with actual lack of achievement in the subject; or are the students being penalized for being

¹⁵ Charles W. Slack, "If I'm So Smart, How Come I Flunk All the Time?" *Eye*, 2, January 1969, 69.

boys, or for being poor, or for being from a minority group, or for not having the skills to manipulate the teacher?"

Grading and Student-Teacher Rapport

Teachers, by and large, would like to be friendly with their students, since it is more pleasant to teach those whom one likes and who return the affection. One of the prime requisites for teaching has always been a liking for young people. This presupposes that the liking will be reciprocated: that the students will in turn like the teacher. Does this mutual liking occur? If it does, it may be distorted when the teacher assigns grades. A study of the fantasy-life of adolescents showed that "teachers were almost always stern, threatening, and avenging figures—seldom was any affection shown by or for them."¹⁶ When the basis on which grades are awarded is one that the students neither understand nor accept, it is difficult indeed for them to develop positive attitudes toward the grade-giver.

The whole elaborate cultural pattern of "apple-polishing" is most revealing. Sometimes students make quite a game of this, comparing notes on the appropriate technique to try on the teacher: "If you tell old so-and-so you think frogs are fascinating, he'll give you a good grade." Or, "Never argue with that teacher about *Hamlet* because she flunks students who think *Hamlet* is dull." Everyone remembers how the pretty blonde who giggled so appreciatively at the professor seemed to get a grade completely out of proportion to what she seemed to know.

How can the student who really likes English or who really thinks the math teacher is a "great guy" express his true feelings? His peer group sometimes ostracizes him if he appears to ally himself with teachers and school. The studious, intelligent, interested student may wander alone throughout his high-school career.¹⁷ It is this student who may turn to teachers completely for his school friendships, since those of his own age view him with mixed feelings of contempt and alarm. He is rejected because he actually likes learning and seems to like teachers. It may well be that sometimes the grading process has made suspect the person interested in the importance of ideas.¹⁸

Growth occurs only as individuals know to what degree and in what manner they have achieved the goals important to them, in order that they may grow toward increasingly significant goals. But where evaluation is only a matter of the teacher's giving grades and marks, then learning is attempted only for the grade. Students who receive an A develop a feeling of superiority which may not be at all justified; students who get an F are given a destructive personal view of their capacity for learning. It has been found that most students who

¹⁶ Percival M. Symonds, *Adolescent Fantasy*. New York: Columbia University Press, 1949, p. 223.

¹⁷ Kenneth A. Kurtzman, "A Study of School Attitudes, Peer Acceptance, and Personality of Creative Adolescents," *Exceptional Children*, 34, November 1967, 157-162.

¹⁸ James S. Coleman, *Adolescent Society*. New York: The Free Press, 1961, p. 14.

become delinquent have a long record of poor achievement in school.¹⁹ The feeling that school success can be measured only by a grade may be highly destructive to the ego-picture of those young people who cannot find success in this manner. When high-school grades are geared to admission to college, as they are in many cases, those students who have no hope or interest in going on to higher education must obtain a very negative view of their own potential as good people and a suspicion and hatred for learning and those who symbolize learning.

The whole blame for anti-intellectualism cannot be laid at the door of the grading process. Yet clearly grades do displace the goal of learning from achieving knowledge to achieving a mark. Although the grade is supposed to be a measure of knowledge, all too often it is only a pleasant coincidence if it is. And because a teacher gives grades, his whole relationship to students is distorted.

Effects of Present Grading Practices on Teachers

Teachers are deeply affected by the grading process. They are likely to develop a fear of students' motives and to distrust students who seem appreciative or interested. It is the rare teacher who does not at some time overhear a cynical remark and realize with chagrin and anger that he, the teacher, has been "played for a sucker." What happens then? The teacher in turn builds barriers between himself and students by freezing with suspicion whenever a student makes friendly overtures. After all, the teacher's main function in the life of the student is to induce him to work hard at learning. When the principal emphasis is on grades, and not on learning, the student's main function in life becomes one of seeming to learn without having to go through all the agony—to escape failure at all costs. The battle over grades, then, becomes a fierce and unyielding struggle in which students attempt to outwit the teacher and the teacher constantly seeks to anticipate students.

When students do have successful and important experiences in a classroom, they will of course develop considerable attachment for the teacher. Yet nothing can destroy a long and rewarding friendship more quickly than a poor report-card grade from a "friend." In fact, when teachers know their students well, it becomes even harder to give them low grades. When this happens teachers feel guilty, feel they have betrayed a trust, and feel that they have done something behind the back of a friend who believed in them. This kind of situation produces great ambivalence in both student and teacher. Some teachers escape the problem entirely. One teacher may insist that any student who attends class regularly and is not too unruly will get a B because he cannot stand to hurt, through grades, students he genuinely likes. Another teacher may become so cold, distant, and unapproachable that students are barely more than names and faces. With such a frame of reference, it does not hurt to flunk anyone.

It often comes as something of a shock to the new teacher to realize what a

¹⁹ Sheldon Glueck, *Unraveling Juvenile Delinquency*. New York: The Commonwealth Fund, 1950.

central position grading takes in the teaching process. Much of teacher education has been concerned with content, with the organization of materials, with consideration of the learning process; very little time is typically spent on the psychologically critical element of giving and receiving grades. Because this aspect of teaching has received little attention, it has remained essentially stationary for over 50 years.

The beginning teacher finds himself in a situation where pressures are fierce and contradictory. On one hand, he needs to grade "hard" enough so that students won't "take advantage of him" and think he is too "easy." And, of course, his "grading reputation" will soon reach the ears of his colleagues, who may accord him more respect if he is a "hard"-grader, able to resist student and parent pressure. On the other hand, he knows full well that given a certain amount of intellectual equipment, a student may put out every ounce of effort at his command and still barely register much learning. Does this student deserve a failing grade? The teacher is also painfully and acutely aware of the very able students who so easily achieve an A grade and barely tax their intellectual capacities. How can he honestly evaluate the performance of both these groups with the grading system accepted in most secondary schools?

Grading and Student-Student Relations

The competition for a limited number of rewards divides students. Since it is clear that, in the usual class, only a few will get the top grades, students may develop strong hostilities; after all, their neighbor might win the coveted award from them. Some students develop a great selfishness regarding their own knowledge: hesitating to help a fellow student because that would reduce their own chances at the top grade. Among the students at the bottom of the heap, the reverse is true. Since they are sure that they will not get anything but a low grade, they have no moral compunctions about cheating; to them, this is merely sharing and helping a fellow unfortunate escape the ultimate disaster of failure.

In commenting about an able student in an inner-city classroom, a classmate said:

The questions he would answer! It's not so wrong to answer some of them, but we would never answer all, tell all the answers, because we wanted to leave something for the next day. If you answer all of them, the teacher would give you homework, you know. This boy was killing us and he was proud of it.

You know how it works. The teacher says to himself, "Well, you know this. I might as well give you some more." And we would never want more homework. So even if we know, we don't say, so as to have something else for the next day. Sometimes a little left over. If you answer all of them, you're cooked. You get new work the next day and you might not know it and then you are really stuck. Stuck for the weekend!

Like that kid, he proved he had brains for the answers, but he didn't even make friends with anybody first. He was bothering everyone. All he had to do was make one snotty remark to anybody. Man!

He got beat up outside the school; practically every day for months it hap-

pened. As far as that goes, he didn't really have to do anything. Just go along minding his own business. Otherwise he'll have a lot of trouble.²⁰

The amount of work done, as well as the quality, is infectedd by the students' view of what constitutes success or failure, and this view in turn becomes a grinding source of conflict and despair.

Overcoming the Grading Complex

The beginning teacher has a responsibility to try to extend the conventional grade to a more adequate appraisal. One place where some changes have been made is in the elementary school. There is, traditionally, a wide gulf between secondary and elementary school. Yet practices that are sensible at the lower level may also make sense when adapted for an older group. The traditional report card is less likely to be used at earlier grade levels. Frequently "narrative" report cards are used which allow the teacher several opportunities during the year to write at length about the progress of the individual child. The parent may be asked to make a written reply, instead of simply supplying his signature. Teacher-parent conferences, in which parents sit down with the teacher and go over their child's work, are also an essential part of this reporting system. Ideally, the parent is able to inform the teacher about home conditions or relationships that may be significant, and in turn the teacher tells the parent all he can about the child's school behavior: what he learns; how he learns; how he plays and works with other children; his talents, strengths, weaknesses, and areas needing special attention. From such a reporting system can—and often does—come a genuinely cooperative effort between school and home which enables a child to grow according to his best pattern.²¹

The junior and senior high schools have not yet reached such an understanding in reporting to parents. The problem is admittedly more difficult because each teacher has so many students—sometimes as many as 200—and thus can hardly write narrative accounts about each one. But perhaps the hard fact is that the problem itself has never been scrutinized closely. There is no "built-in" system of regular and extensive communication with parents of adolescents. At a time when parents find it most difficult to communicate with their children, when these young people are telling them least about the significant things that are occurring, the school is also least helpful.

The problem cannot be resolved here. It can be pointed out, however, that practices are changing in other parts of the school system. The beginning teacher can experiment with some modest changes in the system. Here are a few suggestions:

Discuss the grading-marking system with students. The teacher will find that

²⁰ Charlotte Mayerson (ed.), *Two Blocks Apart*. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1965, p. 74.

²¹ R. Murray Thomas, *Judging Student Progress*. New York: David McKay Company, Inc., 1954. (Originally published by Longmans, Green & Co., Inc., New York.)

class time spent in discussing grades with every new class will aid immeasurably in bridging the gap between teacher and student. The teacher will want to explain carefully the limits under which he works: for example, in college preparatory courses he should make clear the grade requirements for college admissions which influence high-school grading practices.

Provide a variety of avenues to achievement. Every course of instruction has a multitude of possible and important purposes. After being in a mathematics class for a semester, a student should not only have attained some skill in solving problems, but should also have developed an ability to draw graphs and charts, write neatly, discuss intelligently, work cooperatively, be responsible for aspects of class management, and so forth. Thus, a student may have more than one avenue to classroom success.

Develop self-evaluation tools. The teacher can give students a technique for looking at their own achievement through a report form developed jointly by the teacher and the class or by a class committee for the various phases or units of work. A sample of one such form is given on pages 338-339.

When this form is completed by the student, it should be kept by the teacher to check his own judgment of the student and—where teacher and student disagree drastically—to use as a basis for a personal conference. If the student indicates significant problems and weaknesses, the teacher can easily discuss these with him.

Utilize many evaluation techniques. When a teacher gives the same kind of test all the time—objective, essay, matching items, problem solving—then only students proficient in that kind of skill or in learning material that can be fitted into such a test will be able to do well on the test. This will discourage those who are unable to do that kind of task well and will not challenge those who always succeed. Furthermore, it will encourage cheating, since the student is given only one way to success. Therefore, in all fairness, the teacher must use many evaluation techniques.

Allow students to share in evaluating one another. An evaluation committee with a constantly rotating membership may be a great asset to a teacher. The students then act in an advisory capacity in judging the quality of their own work. For example, it has been found very rewarding for small groups of students—three or four—to read and evaluate one another's papers. One teacher in a ninth-grade orientation course had the students read their papers in small groups and then select the best one of the three or four read. After several periods of this kind of evaluation, students who had never written an acceptable paper or report were more conscientious in getting their papers done.

The larger the role of the student in an evaluation program, the more effective total learning will be. Students will develop the ability to appraise and discriminate and to set their own standards and goals for achievement. Teachers can find innumerable situations in the classroom in which students may be active in the evaluation of learning. Some additional suggestions follow.

Textbook reading assignments. Instead of pointing textbook reading toward class discussion only, the students may be asked to prepare some questions on the

Student Self-Evaluation Chart

Am I Growing?²²

In order to find out how much I am growing this year, I am keeping this chart. In the first column I have indicated those things with an N that I need help in very much and with an A those I need help in moderately.

In each of the following I have checked with:

- X, if I have improved since the last time
- O, if I have remained about the same
- , if I have lost ground

1. Extent to which I am growing in my ability to assume responsibility

Date

- a. By regular class attendance
- b. By having all necessary materials such as pen, pencils, notebooks, ready to carry on work
- c. By voluntarily meeting my obligations for work which I have missed
- d. By not missing class the day a specific piece of work is due
- e. By doing what I have agreed to do
- f. By volunteering things for the class benefit not required in the plan of work
- g. By doing things on my own rather than depending on the help of others

2. Extent to which I am becoming more tolerant toward the ideas of others

Date

- a. By listening attentively to the one speaking even though I disagree with him
- b. By not ridiculing the statements or ideas of others
- c. By being courteous even when disagreeing with others
- d. By asking questions to better understand other points of view
- e. By accepting kindly those who seem "different"

²² "Instruction in Citizenship in California High Schools," Bulletin of the California State Department of Education, 10, December 1941, No. 11, 41.

3. Extent to which I am becoming able to cooperate effectively

Date

- a. By carrying my share of the load when working on a committee
- b. By giving up some of the things I want to do if it conflicts with the wishes of the majority of the class
- c. By suggesting things helpful to others working on a problem
- d. By not "hogging" books, materials, ideas, etc.
- e. By sharing my talents with the class
- f. By not monopolizing the discussion time
- g. By sharing interesting and worthwhile experiences

pages of text which could be used for a quiz on that section. The questions might be part of a classroom review game. But the teacher should help the students understand what makes a good question by asking them to look at the information needed to answer the question. "Is that important for us to know? Why?" would be the recurrent criteria posed by the teacher. A student committee might be asked to screen the questions for either a review game or a quiz; the students might be asked to indicate what they considered the correct answer to each question; and a team of "experts" from the class might appraise the judgment of the students, with a final overall review by the teacher.

Student presentations. Whenever a group of students or individual students present material to the class as a whole, they should be requested to prepare a few questions that the class should be able to answer after the material has been presented. The students responsible for the presentation might be asked to grade the answers of the class as a way of self-evaluation. They would then know to what extent they had succeeded in teaching the material.

If committees or individual students take the responsibility for bulletin board displays, the same procedures may be followed. Those preparing the displays might be asked to hand in some questions the students would be able to answer if the bulletin board attracted their attention. These questions, when asked of the class, will indicate how well the bulletin board did its job of teaching. The class might be asked to evaluate several displays for effectiveness, interest, clarity, originality, timeliness, taste, appeal. An evaluation committee might check the displays according to a list of criteria agreed on by the class. Or, a few moments might be provided at the end of the week for each member of the class to check such a list. The results would be used by the students, or committees, putting up the bulletin board to discover how others judged their efforts.

Group-evaluation procedures. Where a group makes a presentation, prepares a test question, and then grades this question as a group, a more serious interest in the whole process of learning and teaching will be found.

Plan for a conference period with each student to appraise his progress. Such conferences are highly valuable if held early enough in the semester so that the student may have time to improve. And a conference at the end of the semester regarding the final semester grade will help the student to accept realistically the teacher's appraisal of his work and to fit it into his own self-appraisal. Keeping folders in which the students file their work throughout the semester is very helpful. The student and teacher together can then look over several months' work. This method enables the teacher to base his final grade on growth, rather than on an average of noncomparable periods of work.

These suggestions for overcoming some of the limitations of the grading process assume several operating principles: *first*, that grading is no longer the teacher's sole responsibility, but becomes a joint endeavor in which the student takes an important part; *second*, that each student can learn, can use his best talents, and can assess his own ability and effort; *third*, that the actual achievement of students is considered far more significant than the grade that is stamped upon it; *fourth*, that continued teacher-student contact—many individual conferences, time spent on joint appraisal of progress, and cooperative planning of programs—is accepted as necessary.

To Fail or Not To Fail

When am I justified in failing a student? During my student teaching, I encountered a girl in a home economics class who just couldn't learn to thread a sewing machine. It isn't really a very difficult task, but all the evidence we had showed that she just didn't have the mental capacity to learn this simple mechanical operation. She tried; she tried very hard. But someone always had to untangle it for her. She could sew a little once the machine was threaded. I gave her a D for the unit of work I was teaching, which included this aspect. But how could she get a passing grade for the course? She certainly had failed the major part of the sewing course. Fortunately, I didn't have to make that decision, since my student teaching was over before the final grades were determined.

How should this student be graded? First, of course, a teacher would have to ascertain the school policy on failing students. In some schools a student may get a failing grade in a single course and not have to repeat the course. If the course is required for graduation, then failure may well involve repeating the same course. If this is true, does the student have to repeat it with the same teacher? If failure is a direct result of actual lack of ability, certainly little or nothing is gained by repeating the course. In rare instances, failure may bring an otherwise irresponsible adolescent face to face with reality.

Research and observation indicate, however, that often neither the threat of failure nor actual failure makes much difference. Repeating a course does not

always promote learning that did not take place the first time. It may, however, result in a feeling of complete incompetence and a lively hatred of school and all it signifies.

Unfortunately, many adults seem to think that they were motivated to success in school through fear of failure. Perhaps. But at what cost? Impressive evidence indicates that a far more reliable motivation toward further success is success in the first place.²³

But shouldn't individuals face failure sooner or later? Isn't this what "real life" is all about? Yes—and no. Security in the self is so basic to adequacy in all endeavors that schools must foster it.²⁴ Certainly such a sense of competence must be honestly won: that is, Fred cannot be convinced that he is as good a baseball player as Bill when he can see himself outdistanced by every available measure. But the concomitant of "not a good baseball player" is not that Fred is not a good person. He may indeed be very able, but not in baseball. Yet, in many classrooms, the Freds are subjected to competition with the Bills in all kinds of situations. Is it fair to force Bill, the good baseball player, to compete with Fred, the genius in the automechanics course, where Bill is all thumbs? Certainly "real life" is kinder than the classroom. In "real life" individuals compete almost wholly with their peers, with those who have some degree of skill in the same areas in which they are working. People usually do not continue to compete in fields where they know they are not at all able. A young man would be considered very foolish if he tried to be a professional athlete when he had no obvious talent, or an auto mechanic if he were extremely awkward. Yet schools often put students of diverse talents into many of the same courses and set essentially the same tasks for all of them. This seems a far cry from the competition to be faced in later life and is really poor preparation for it. Isn't it the teacher's task to minimize the potentially hazardous impact of unfair competition and to allow students to compete with those who are their peers? Shouldn't the school engender a genuine respect among all kinds of students for all kinds of talent?

Reporting to Parents

While ways of working with parents are suggested in Chapter 17, it is important, also, to consider briefly parental contacts that are part of the grading-reporting system.

Report cards are issued quarterly in some schools; twice a year; or at the end of each semester in others. Some schools still adhere to a percentage system.

The system that has come into somewhat more common use today is that based on five letter grades: A = superior; B = good; C = average performance;

²³ Benjamin Fine, "Why Bright Students Get Poor Marks," *Redbook*, September 1966, pp. 72-73+. See also Robert L. Hamblin and others, "Changing the Game from 'Get the Teacher' to 'Learn'," *Trans-action*, 6, January 1969, 20-36.

²⁴ Stanley Coopersmith, *Antecedents of Self-Esteem*. San Francisco: W. H. Freeman and Company, 1967; and Jean D. Grambs, "Negro Self concept," in Kwarceus, William, and others, *Negro Self-Concept*. New York: McGraw Hill, Inc., 1963.

D = poor performance; and E or F = failing. This is translated into a four-point scale by many schools with the addition of plus or minus to all of the letters except F. Extra "honor" points are added for grades in college preparatory and advanced sections in some schools. This device, while allowing students in noncollege preparatory programs to get good grades, effectively keeps them low in overall class ranks and off the honor rolls as well as outside the Honor Society. A few schools have adopted a three-point system: H for honors; S for satisfactory; and U for unsatisfactory or failing. This may be reduced further to two marks: S and U. Some schools recognize the other learnings, of which we have spoken earlier, with a separate "citizenship" grade or with a number of grades for various attitudes and behaviors. Thus there is wide variation among the nation's schools in the kinds of grades assigned. Students who transfer from one school to another sometimes find it difficult to explain just where they are in their work or what level of achievement they have reached.

Any system of grading and marking is in part justified, say its defenders, because the marks on a report card are easily entered by a teacher and are easily understood by the parent. A teacher arrives at a summary mark for a student and puts it in the appropriate box on a report card. This is recorded by the school office staff, and the report card is taken home to the parent. The real purpose of the report card is to indicate to the parent the progress of the student; therefore the question to raise is, "Does the report card actually do this?"

A case in point is that of the father who said to his child's teacher somewhat facetiously, "We get a report on you every night between soup and dessert, but you only send us a report on Tim every nine weeks. Furthermore, your report is limited mainly to his progress in subjects. You don't give us much enlightenment on the real Tim at all and on how he is getting along at school."²⁵

A study of the school problems of a group of junior Hi-Y boys in Akron, Ohio, showed that 17 percent of the students reported that they did not like to take home their report cards.²⁶ At least in part, students may not like to take their grades home because they must translate to their parents the meaning of the school marks on the report card. The typical conversation at home may sound like this:

FATHER: What is this, a B— in history? How come you didn't get an A? I thought you liked history.

JUNIOR: Well, history is okay, but you see I got an A and a C— in a test, so I think my average wasn't so good.

FATHER: Well, you ought to get a better grade than that. Remember a B— isn't going to get you into college.

The report card effectually obscures the real purposes of education. In most

²⁵ Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development. *Reporting Is Communicating*. Washington, D.C.: The Association, 1956.

²⁶ William D. Stuber, "The Personal Problems of Jr. Hi-Y Members," *Jr. Hi-Y Ways*, April 1950, p. 1.

cases school marks only direct the attention of students, parents, and teachers toward the symbol of success, the grade, rather than the actual learning or growth that the mark supposedly represents.

The average teacher, with four or five classes a day and 30 to 35 students in each, cannot conceivably make many individual contacts with each parent, whether through visits, telephone calls, or letters. However, during the course of a semester or a year, the teacher might well arrange at least one such contact with each family. When students need special attention, a home visit is helpful. For students who are progressing at a normal rate, a note or a telephone call will help parents gain a better understanding of their adolescent and his progress in school. Such notes and telephone calls should include:

An indication of the teacher's genuine interest in the student and his progress.

An expression of understanding of problems that may interfere with optimal achievement.

A willingness to work with the parents toward the goals the parent has for his child. Where parents' goals are unrealistic in terms of the student's actual ability, the teacher may sometimes be able to discuss this problem with the parent and produce evidence that supports his insight. Obviously, this takes sensitivity, planning, and tact.

Specific statements about areas in which the student has shown genuine progress; specific suggestions about ways in which the student may need to do further work with the aid of his parents.

Parents learn fairly quickly about Bob when he is in trouble because of misbehavior. But how many parents hear from a teacher because Bob shows rare talent or promise in a particular field? Neglect of gifted students is most apparent when one observes the fact that many parents of talented youngsters have no notion that their offspring is capable of doing work beyond the average. Numerous instances are also on record of parents knowing of a child's interest but being either unsympathetic to, or unaware of, the talent that lies behind an "eccentric" hobby. Thus teachers have a special obligation to develop contacts with parents—not only because it may make a difference personally, but also because of its potential wider social contribution.

RECOMMENDED READING

- American Psychological Association. *Standards for Educational and Psychological Tests and Manuals*. Washington, D.C.: The Association, 1966. How to select and interpret tests so that users will know the reliance that can be placed upon the results achieved.
- Bebell, Clifford F. S. "The Evaluation We Have." In *Evaluation as Feedback and Guide*, Wilhelms, Fred T. (ed.). Washington, D.C.: The Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1967, pp. 18-46. (1967 Yearbook). A critical examination of the grading-marking system used in schools and why, despite admitted failure, the system is not changed.

- Black, Hillel. *They Shall Not Pass*. New York: William Morrow & Company, Inc., 1963. A report on the alleged abuses of the various national testing programs.
- Bonney, Merl E., and Richard S. Hampleman. *Personal-Social Evaluation Techniques*. Washington, D.C.: The Center for Applied Research in Education, Inc., 1962.
- Bostrom, John, W. Vlandis, and Milton E. Rosenbaum. "Grades As Reinforcing Contingencies and Attitude Change," *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 52, May 1961, 112-115. Describes the research study that supports the hypothesis that a good grade reinforces the behavior for which it has been administered, in contrast to the effects of a poor grade or no grade.
- Casey, John E. "Evaluating Pupils in Terms of Improvement," *School and Society*, 86, June 7, 1958, 263-265. Discusses some of the differences encountered when teachers base their grading of students on improvement rather than absolute achievement.
- Cutler, Marilyn H. "Does Your Report Card Format Rate an A?" *The Nation's Schools*, 62, September 1963. Discusses the changes in methods of reporting grades to parents and the misunderstandings that often result.
- Freeland, Alma M., and Charles H. Dent (eds.). *Reporting Is Communication*. Washington, D.C.: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, National Education Association, 1966. Reports a fictional case example of a school system's efforts to change its method of marking.
- French, Lois. "How Does It Feel To Fail?" In *Mental Health and Achievement*, E. Paul Torrance, and Robert D. Strom (eds.). New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1965, pp. 377-384. A sympathetic review of the impact failure has upon a student's ability to perform and what teachers can do about it.
- Holland, John L. "The Prediction of Academic and Nonacademic Accomplishments." In *Proceedings of the 1966 Invitational Conference on Testing Problems*, Princeton, N.J.: Educational Testing Service, 1967, pp. 44-51. A brief essay that points out the detrimental effects on students of current grading practices.
- Holt, John. *How Children Fail*. New York: Pitman Publishing Corporation, 1964. A critical examination of school practices that make failure the overriding fear and goal for learning. But the author also shows why this process produces only more failure. A controversial book well worth reading and debating.
- Lavin, David E. *The Prediction of Academic Performance*. New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1965. A guide to the research literature concerned with predicting student performance; stresses the dominant role of grades.
- Mallery, David. *High School Students Speak Out*. New York: Harper & Row, Publishers, 1962. See especially Chapter 13, "You Sacrifice Learning for Marks!" Other chapters also illustrate the divisive effects of ability-grouping and the unfairness of grading practices.
- Wall, W. D., F. J. Schonell, and Willard C. Olson. *Failure in School*. Hamburg, Germany: Institute for Education, UNESCO, 1962. An attempt to gain an international synthesis of the causes of failure in schools on the basis of objective evidence drawn from many countries.
- Wrinkle, William L. *Improving Marking and Reporting Practices*. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1947. An older book, but its analysis of the fallacies of the grading system has not been superseded. Nor have the grading problems pointed out by Wrinkle yet been resolved.

Yauch, Wilber A. "What Research Says About—School Marks and Their Reporting," *National Education Association Journal*, 50, May 1961, 50 ff. A study of the last 50 years reveals that the problem of improving the accuracy and effectiveness of marking systems is almost insoluble. Suggests that school personnel should accept this fact and concentrate upon developing more promising reporting procedures.

- Black, Hillel. *They Shall Not Pass*. New York: William Morrow & Company, Inc., 1963. A report on the alleged abuses of the various national testing programs.
- Bonney, Merl E., and Richard S. Hambleman. *Personal-Social Evaluation Techniques*. Washington, D.C.: The Center for Applied Research in Education, Inc., 1962.
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developments, however, the movement has not been uniform. At any given moment discipline practices have varied in different sections of the country and even from school to school within the same geographical area.

Critics of American education have not failed to attribute growth in juvenile delinquency or the increase in student protests or any other type of deviant behavior to alleged laxity in school discipline. The public, reading the same newspaper accounts read by beginning teachers, seems largely willing to support a "get tough" policy.¹ The "get tough" approach has, in fact, always retained a substantial corps of advocates in education.

There was a boy in my ninth-grade mathematics class who was a real problem. I warned him that the next time he smarted off in class I would deal with him personally. He did so and I banged his head against the desk. Since that time he has been a model student in my class. I realize that it was not the best procedure, but it sure got results.²

Most teachers realize that to resort to physical violence only secures compliance at best and treats only a symptom of the problem which remains. Obviously, such a procedure is only a temporary expedient, but new teachers often come under considerable pressure from the "old guard" of the school to conform to a "get tough" policy.³

Between the extremes of dealing with discipline problems there lies an Aristotelian Golden Mean which realizes that a discipline problem is just that—a problem with causes and a solution. The task of the teacher is to diagnose the cause and seek a solution. Not all misbehavior in the classroom is serious, but some students do display far from satisfactory personal adjustment to life in school. It is nonsense to say that a good teacher does not have discipline problems. The better the teaching techniques used, the fewer the problems, true; but student behavior is a concern for all teachers. This chapter, and the following one, will discuss the role of the teacher faced with minor classroom misbehavior as well as with the more serious problems produced by personality maladjustment.

What Is Discipline?

When young people are planning their own party, there is often little horseplay or interference with those doing the planning. If someone in the group interferes with what it wants to do, the other members of the group either quell him or oust him. It is important to note that in such a group, first, the members are actively engaged in an enterprise that is really important to them; second, they have chosen the activity freely; and, third, membership in the group is voluntary.

¹ See for example "The Spanking Judge," *Parade Magazine*, March 3, 1963, p. 14.

² Nicholas J. Long and Ruth G. Newman, "The Teacher's Handling of Children in Conflict," *Bulletin of the School of Education, Indiana University*, 37, July 1961, No. 4, p. 42.

³ See Donald J. Willower and Ronald G. Jones, "When Pupil Control Becomes an Institutional Theme," *Phi Delta Kappan*, 45, November 1963, No. 2, 107.

Trouble *teacher-made*

15

One of the greatest concerns of beginning teachers is that of establishing and maintaining order in the classroom. Having read somewhat sensationalized newspaper and magazine accounts of high-school gangs and other activities of adolescents, the beginner is prepared to believe the worst. Entering the classroom in this frame of mind he may react more or less violently to the least provocation, real or imagined.

His ability to deal effectively with discipline problems may well be confused by the conflicting suggestions of his fellow teachers. There is no shortage of advice on discipline:

You've got to show kids you're the boss and they better not forget it.

If you have a behavior problem, look first to see what you've done wrong.

These two statements represent the extremes of advice given to prospective teachers. The first statement is representative of the "get tough" approach to discipline which has as its core the belief that, if nothing else works with youth, one can always rely on threat for control. It assumes that the students are always wrong. The second statement assumes that discipline problems are mainly the result of inadequate teaching. Between these polar positions can be found statements to support just about any view a teacher finds comforting.

The history of discipline in American society—both in and out of school—has been one of movement from rigidity to permissiveness. As with most school

developments, however, the movement has not been uniform. At any given moment discipline practices have varied in different sections of the country and even from school to school within the same geographical area.

Critics of American education have not failed to attribute growth in juvenile delinquency or the increase in student protests or any other type of deviant behavior to alleged laxity in school discipline. The public, reading the same newspaper accounts read by beginning teachers, seems largely willing to support a "get tough" policy.¹ The "get tough" approach has, in fact, always retained a substantial corps of advocates in education.

There was a boy in my ninth-grade mathematics class who was a real problem. I warned him that the next time he smarted off in class I would deal with him personally. He did so and I banged his head against the desk. Since that time he has been a model student in my class. I realize that it was not the best procedure, but it sure got results.²

Most teachers realize that to resort to physical violence only secures compliance at best and treats only a symptom of the problem which remains. Obviously, such a procedure is only a temporary expedient, but new teachers often come under considerable pressure from the "old guard" of the school to conform to a "get tough" policy.³

Between the extremes of dealing with discipline problems there lies an Aristotelian Golden Mean which realizes that a discipline problem is just that—a problem with causes and a solution. The task of the teacher is to diagnose the cause and seek a solution. Not all misbehavior in the classroom is serious, but some students do display far from satisfactory personal adjustment to life in school. It is nonsense to say that a good teacher does not have discipline problems. The better the teaching techniques used, the fewer the problems, true; but student behavior is a concern for all teachers. This chapter, and the following one, will discuss the role of the teacher faced with minor classroom misbehavior as well as with the more serious problems produced by personality maladjustment.

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Now take the typical classroom: the topics of study and the activities for learning are usually not selected by the students. Nor, for the most part, is the student in school of his own free choice. He knows that there are drastic social measures that can be taken against him—what, exactly, he is not sure—were he to remain away from school without a genuine excuse. His parents usually insist on his attendance at school; therefore, he has no way out except to comply with the requirements of the adult world until he himself graduates into adulthood. Even though students may genuinely desire knowledge, may actually enjoy school more than the aimless hours of vacation—and this attitude is more prevalent than is generally supposed—still, the involuntary nature of the situation has its psychological effects. The student did not select the school he attends; he did not select the teachers who instruct him and in only a minority of instances can he even have a “free” choice of what courses to take. Students are quite accurately prisoners of the system.

Major Categories of Discipline Problems

It is not at all surprising that from time to time any student will rebel against alien subject matter, enforced inactivity, involuntary attendance, and tasks that are beyond his capacity. This is what might be called “normal” misbehavior. However, sometimes reactions to the ordinary demands of the school are surprisingly violent; individuals seem unable to adjust, even for short periods, to school expectations. This might be called “abnormal” misbehavior.

The teacher thus has two major tasks in dealing with classroom behavior. First, he needs skill in handling the normal misbehavior situations with tact, understanding, and diplomacy. Second, he needs insight into abnormal misbehavior, with an understanding of what the school can do and what other aid may be required. The teacher’s action in handling both normal and abnormal misbehavior is usually termed “discipline.” “The teacher disciplines the class” is a commonly accepted phrase. By discipline one means that the teacher is exercising his authority to produce a classroom atmosphere in which learning may continue, either on the part of an individual or on the part of the group.

Desirable Classroom Discipline

Most people carry a mental picture of how teachers in their own experiences managed to discipline their classes. Some teachers were stern, cold, forbidding; others shouted at the class constantly; and still others lost their temper on the average of once a week and frightened everyone in the class. But some seemed calm, approachable, unruffled by misbehavior.

One future teacher recalled the following experience from the eighth grade.

We were in the gymnasium and were learning a new square dance. One of the boys refused to dance and would hit the other boys or would just run around.

This boy had made trouble before so this was nothing new. The teacher had always had trouble with him. On this particular day, the boy continued to disrupt the class. The teacher stopped the music, made the boy lie down on his stomach, and began spanking him. For some reason, he never liked dancing again, as his wife complains to this day.

Other beginning teachers may recall similar incidents. The beginning teacher should examine critically the kind of teacher management he admires. As suggested in Chapter 1, there are many kinds of good teachers, and each has his own methods of control. Some teachers establish formal and rather impersonal classroom behavior; others are free and easy, and there is much laughter in their classroom. The kinds of discipline techniques that a teacher can successfully use depend in large measure upon his own personality resources, his general attitude toward others, and his ideal of a classroom. Within such limits as one's own personality imposes, there are some general principles for good discipline that can be applied.

Although keeping order is the traditional version of discipline, the better professional approach is to develop good motivation, and a good emotional climate in the classroom. A teacher who does a good job of motivating students to do the tasks that have been outlined has good discipline; similarly, a teacher who creates a friendly, relaxed, but workmanlike atmosphere has good discipline.

Before proceeding with this discussion, it would be useful to review the criteria for democratic education already presented in Chapter 3. Essentially, these criteria establish the methods of democratic control or, in the terminology of the educator, democratic discipline. Establishing a balance between freedom and security means that rules operate and are respected, but that the individual feels comfortable within the framework of the rules. The rules then are the disciplinary agent; the teacher merely helps students observe them. Students are guided toward increased self-discipline, which means that discipline is something that is not for the benefit of the teacher or even for the benefit of the student, but rather for the benefit of the group. The activity itself imposes its own discipline in the same way that the rules of a game of basketball impose a discipline on the team.

The conception outlined above, however, is not all there is to the subject of discipline. Several variables must be taken into account. *First*, we must consider the problem of teacher personality and teacher reaction to the activities and behavior of immature students. *Second*, we may encounter the problem of the teacher who lacks teaching and social skills. He is simply tactless, or awkward, or disorganized. These first two may be called *teacher-caused* discipline problems. *Third*, there is the problem of explosive or provocative personality relations among members of the class. Some students are dynamite only in combination with certain other students. Others, unaided, can agitate the whole class. *Fourth*, there are the problems that reside in the individual personality of certain students. With these students, disturbances in adjustment at home or school have left their

mark, making it more than normally difficult for them to adjust to classroom demands. The latter two variables may be called *student-caused discipline problems*. *Fifth*, we may find discipline situations arising from the nature of the institution.

Teacher-Caused Discipline Problems

Discipline problems that arise from inadequacies in the teacher, from his own intolerance or lack of insight into youth, will respond only to critical self-analysis. Inadequacies in the teacher may be subdivided into lack of social skill and lack of teaching skill.

TEACHERS DISPLAY LACK OF SOCIAL SKILL BY

- Using sarcasm
- Failing to answer reasonable questions
- Being insensitive to the special problems of students, such as stuttering
- Being inconsistent: for example, telling a student who has come in late to ask his neighbor for help, then scolding him for talking
- Being impolite and inconsiderate
- Making personal remarks about students, their dress, appearance, or manner of speaking
- Being unfair; having favorites
- Making disparaging remarks about social groups in the community
- Gossiping about students in public places

TEACHERS DISPLAY LACK OF TEACHING SKILL BY

- Conducting classes in a dull, monotonous way
- Speaking in a rasping, irritating voice
- Giving vague assignments
- Giving assignments too difficult for the students
- Proceeding with oral work when there is noise in or outside the class
- Failing to give attention to light and heat conditions
- Being confused about classroom routines, such as the distribution of supplies
- Giving in to student pressure at unpredictable times
- Failing to make all learning steps clear
- Giving tests on material not covered in class
- Rewarding only one kind of aptitude

Teacher Lacking in both Social and Pedagogical Skill

The following narrative provides an example of a teacher grossly lacking in both social and teaching skill. While it may appear to be too extreme to be real, it is an actual record of a classroom observation. The actions described are not uncommon; they do not always occur in one class hour as in this case, but such malpractices do reveal themselves—and too often.

Mr. Brown stood by his desk, rifling through a disorderly mass of student papers, books and folders in search of his grade book. He announced to the class, "While I am taking roll, I want you to fill out these registration cards." He passed out the cards.

While Mr. Brown was passing out the cards, two girls came hurrying in. "You're late, girls," he remarked. "But, Mr. Brown, we've already been here once. We just went down the hall for a drink of water."

"You're still late. Go to the office and get a late entry pass."

The two girls had no sooner gone than another girl opened the door, dropped her books with a clatter on the first desk, and then went out.

"Mr. Brown," came a voice from the back of the room, "do we fill these cards out in ink?" No answer. Mr. Brown was checking the roll-book, but obviously had heard the remark.

"Mr. Brown, pen or pencil?"

"You know better than to ask such a question," Mr. Brown finally retorted angrily. "You always fill things out in ink."

"But what if you don't have a pen?"

"Then use mine, or borrow one."

"Oh, I have one. I was just wondering what someone who didn't have one would do." A snicker passed through the room . . .

Good order, even on the teacher's desk, is basic to good management. The time wasted looking for something is time when the class lacks direction and confusion begins.

No explanation of the cards? What are they for? Even routine forms should be explained to minimize confusion.

Better to complete distributing the cards and then speak to the girls privately.

This kind of lack of respect for the classroom activity seems to be a prevailing note in Mr. Brown's room.

He treats the students with a lack of consideration, and they respond in kind.

An expected reaction, because no directions were given when the cards were passed out. There will always be students who do not know what to do, no matter how often a routine has been gone through.

Why should the teacher disregard a request for information? If it is a legitimate request, it deserves an answer. If it is an attempt to annoy, the best way to thwart such an effort is to treat it seriously. Certainly telling the student in an angry tone of voice that he ought to know better makes the situation worse.

This is the result of disregard for students as human beings. The teacher fell into a very neat trap; now his control over the class is in serious jeopardy.

"I'm going to hand back your papers from yesterday," announced Mr. Brown. Immediately everyone began to talk.

"You people be quiet! Some of you are going to be sent to the office if you're not careful."

Two girls kept right on talking.

"Have you girls finished your conversation?"

"Yes," they answered, with a smirk to their neighbors.

At this point, the three tardy students returned to class. Mr. Brown began to read the answers to the punctuation exercise. He interrupted himself to ask, "Those of you who came in late, do you know what we are doing?"

"No."

"Well, find out." The students referred to immediately turned to their neighbors, and for a moment disrupted Mr. Brown's procedure.

The use of threats should be carefully weighed. Is "the office" the place to settle minor difficulties? What kind of behavior merits such treatment?

Evidently this threat didn't work; the students continued to misbehave.

What if the girls had answered "No"?

Obviously the latecomers could not know what the lesson was, so why ask? The teacher might better have told them briefly what to do, or have asked them to wait and told them later, or have assigned a student to help them quietly.

He is asking for trouble. Of course, such a remark will only lead to a new source of distraction and confusion. And no one could possibly say that this time the students were at fault.

...

While Mr. Brown was reading the rest of the answers, two students wandered up to the wastepaper basket and the pencil sharpener.

A class will show its lack of interest by making use of such disturbing actions as throwing away paper and sharpening pencils. Either interest the class in the activity or have rules about using these facilities so that class work is orderly.

"I'm going to read some of your themes," he announced next. The class broke into whispered conversation.

"You will have to be quiet. You are old enough to know when you are being rude."

Mr. Brown is old enough to know that he has been even ruder himself. Students also have personal feelings.

He finished reading the first theme. The class broke into talking again. Several of the students asked questions. "If you want me to hear you, you'll have to talk one at a time; I can't hear you at all," he said sharply.

He started to read another theme; the class continued to fuss and whisper. He looked up.

The class is completely disorganized. The teacher has lost the students' attention. He tells them he cannot hear them, but fails to re-establish some order in the room.

"What did you say, Joan?"

"Nothing."

"Talking to yourself?"

"Uh-huh."

Mr. Brown returned to his reading; Joan turned and smiled at the girl behind her. The class snickered. Mercifully, the bell rang.

The teacher set his own trap again. He deserved to be caught.

It is significant that this teacher seemed unable to predict the consequences of his own actions. When asked why his class was so chaotic and disturbed, he seemed unable to do anything but blame the students. Yet a report of what went on shows clearly that he was to blame.

Below is another example of a teacher whose discipline is faulty:

Mr. Green was organizing supplies in the adjoining room when the art class arrived. The class clustered in little groups and chattered about the election that

was being held in the school. Mr. Green entered the room and, in a loud voice, said, "Everyone sit down and be quiet!" He read an announcement of a senior class meeting. The seniors bounced up and started to leave the room. In a stern voice, Mr. Green told them to return to their seats and asked for an assignment due that day. He checked the seniors out one at a time, picking up their assignments as they went out. He continued taking the class roll and checking the assignments. This task took from 9:30 until 9:45; the class, with nothing to do, was restless. There were several private conversations going on and six or seven students scrambled to their lockers to find the assignment due.

Mr. Green went into the other room to check out paper for the coming assignment. He prefaced this with: "Just ask for the color and size of paper you need, no other questions." This distribution took from 9:45 to 10:05. He returned to the main room, called for order, and announced that the marks for overdue assignments would be lowered by one letter grade for each day they were late. There was time left to help three people individually out of the class of twenty. For most of the students, the hour had been spent in waiting and in various diversionary maneuvers.

The Mr. Brown of the first example was alternately rude and inept; Mr. Green tries to be stern and forbidding. But Mr. Green, like Mr. Brown, is having little success in motivating his students to learn. Mr. Green obviously needs to examine some basic errors in his teaching methods when only three out of a class of twenty get any aid during a 50-minute period.

Teacher Lacking in Pedagogical Skill

I sat bored through two years of Latin and two years of French with this woman. She was not firm about unruly behavior and did not know how to counteract it by presenting interesting lessons. Paper airplanes and spitballs were frequently on the scene; voices buzzed during the class; cheating was prevalent. The teacher seemed to want to be buddies with all of us. Although she may have known her languages, she didn't know how to teach them effectively. The teacher took the unruly behavior as long as possible, then blew up. The class would calm down that day—perhaps—and start up the next.

Here is another description of teacher-made discipline problems.

For two days, the English teacher had been recording the voices of the students on a tape recorder. Two students who had had their voices recorded the first day were weary of waiting for the last student to take his turn at the microphone. One student asked the teacher how much longer the recording sessions were going to take. The teacher told him to sit down and stop disturbing the recording procedure. The teacher could be heard laughing in the back of the room. He continued to record voices. Meanwhile, the two perturbed students were whispering to each other. The students wanted to get back to regular work. One student

said, in a normal speaking voice, "I am sick of waiting around for two days, doing nothing and learning nothing. All that teacher does is fool around and laugh."

The teacher overheard the entire conversation. In a loud voice he expressed his contempt for the complaining students.

"Well, I'm sick of your impudence, young man—get out!" The student asked where he should go: to the office? The teacher replied, "Just get out, I don't care where!" The student picked up his books and left the room.

It is evident that the teacher's lack of teaching skill produced the discipline problem. While he was busy with a few students the rest of the class could have been recording some portion of the class lesson—perhaps student reports to the whole class—or the teacher could have planned some specific task for all to work on before and after the recording.

Although a parade of horrible examples is not the whole story of discipline, a thoughtful analysis of descriptions of teacher mismanagement will at least underline some mistakes to be avoided.

During my senior year in high school I had a history class where the teacher was an elderly gentleman who had long been a member of the teaching profession. One could not doubt that he knew his history, but that wasn't the problem. During class periods the teacher would go over the previous night's assignment by calling on the students to recite. If a student wasn't called upon, he would usually do anything but listen to the answer. At times the class got a little noisy. In order to combat this, the teacher would find a victim from several of the ringleaders who seemed always to be noisiest and give him what was called "inattentives," which consisted of extra work: either 4, 8, or 12 questions to be answered. By receiving these one would have to do a great deal of extra work to receive a decent grade in the unit.

This example highlights some grievous errors. First, the dry, read-and-answer-questions approach to teaching produces boredom and causes students to look for some way to last out the period. Second, the teacher is picking one "victim" for what is a generalized condition. Third, the teacher is using the subject matter as an instrument of punishment—hardly a way to engender interest in that subject. Fourth, the teacher is using his punishment procedures as a basis for grading the student.

The next example illustrates the effect of poor teaching on the interrelations of students.

After five minutes of calisthenics, the boys separated into prechosen touch football teams. The coach handed out the balls to the teams from a bag carried to the field. There were three or four domineering boys on each team. They monopolized all the playing while the other two or three boys on the team centered the ball or blocked—or did nothing. One big boy, who was wearing football shoes, called the plays and carried the ball in almost every play. The coach

explained that the boy was a center on the varsity and that he was allowed to wear cleats when he didn't have his tennis shoes. On the same team, a small boy, wearing glasses, didn't even bother to get into the huddles. He centered the ball every time and just blocked.

The coach observed after class, "Boys today don't seem to have any spirit. None of them seems to be interested in learning to play games or learning fundamentals."

Of course the boys in this class do not play well; the teacher has failed to put them in situations where they would want to play.

Two other pitfalls for the unwary teacher should be mentioned here. The first is the danger of falling prey to one's own personal problems and anxieties. The teacher who is moody—sunny one day and a thundercloud the next—induces insecurity and anxiety in students. Student misbehavior may seem unbearable sometime and highly humorous at another time. Such inconsistency is bound to make trouble for the teacher. The students will distrust him and ignore his rules because he himself is unreliable.

The second pitfall is rudeness. Teachers often talk to and treat students in a way they themselves would not tolerate—even from other adults. Such behavior includes telling students they are "dumb," complaining that they are acting like babies, making personal remarks about their appearance in public ("Well, it looks as though Ted finally got his hair cut"; or "I guess Sue Ann is trying to compete with color television with that dress"), hurrying them with impatience, and interrupting their conversations or reports in a brusque and unnecessary fashion. A rude teacher will be treated rudely by his students.

Correcting Teacher-Caused Discipline Problems

What measures can be suggested in cases where discipline problems seem to result from the teacher's own mistakes in management? First, of course, it is imperative to make a critical analysis of those actions of the teacher which cause trouble. Often, this analysis must be made by an outside observer. Teachers who bring about their own misfortunes are apt to be unable to see just what it is they do which seems to be so provocative. The student-teaching period should be the time during which a beginning teacher is helped to see which of his actions contribute to a smoothly operating class and which are disruptive. Second, the quality of instruction should be reviewed. In a surprisingly large number of situations, discipline problems arise, not from anything the teacher does wrong, but merely from the sheer dullness of the class work. Third, visits to other classrooms, in which teachers are successful in achieving discipline, may suggest better methods of management. For example, if starting the day is an acute problem for the teacher, she should try to learn how others handle this routine successfully.

The teacher who is the major cause of his own troubles has usually made mistakes early in teaching and has not gone back to analyze his errors. He merely continues to make the same mistakes, with the same unfortunate consequences.

The skillful teacher says to himself, "Well, that lesson went well; now why did it work so much better in third rather than in fourth period?" Or, "Why did Johnny look so angry at what I said? What problem in him did I touch?" A persistent self-consciousness about the process of teaching, an objective appraisal of instructional tactics, is essential to increased competence.

Teachers, like all other human beings, will react negatively to anyone who makes life more difficult for them. It would require a kind of superman to react with loving kindness toward a sixteen-year-old who continually makes irritating remarks in class. The teacher might easily develop a healthy dislike for such a youngster. Under ordinary circumstances, that is, if he were not a teacher, his attitude might not matter so much. But the teaching situation is not an ordinary circumstance, and the teacher is not justified in reacting as he would in a normal social situation. Dislike is a strong impediment to providing help. Yet the students who need help most are almost always those who are most difficult to like.

The teacher, then, must be emotionally prepared for this first reaction of dislike toward those students who are making trouble and, by seeing his reaction as a normal occurrence, try to view the behavior objectively. To the best of his ability, the teacher should consider the student not as one making trouble for the teacher, but as one who, by his misbehavior, makes trouble for himself. Such a student needs more help, more kindness, more consideration because his progress toward maturity is so much more difficult.

The teacher's role in discipline, then, is to recognize and practice the ordinary amenities of social living, to teach with skill, and to develop insight into his own emotional rejection of students who create trouble. With such preparation, the teacher is ready to examine carefully the contributions young people themselves make to classroom disturbances.

Discipline Situations Arising from School Life

Some discipline problems arise from students' all-too-human reaction to the institutional structure of schools. The crucial school situations that seem to make it more than usually difficult for students to control themselves are:

- The last period of the day on Friday
- The last period of any day
- The last five minutes before lunch
- The whole day just before a big game, rally, or all-school event
- The first part of the period following an exciting rally, school assembly, or fire drill
- The day just before report cards come out; the day report cards are issued, the day following this
- At a time of all-school crisis, such as winning the league championship, conflict between students and administration; arrest of students and consequent school scandal; the death of a popular student; a school riot; teacher strike, major national disaster

Before a holiday and before extended vacations
Fridays in general; sometimes the first half of Monday
Appearance of a substitute teacher
The first few minutes of a period

This list could probably be extended from the experience of every teacher.

Students respond in a number of ways to such situations. The major symptom is general restlessness, which communicates itself to all of the class: wriggling, giggling, squirming, inattention, inability to stop whispered conversations, short attention span, unexpected bursts of laughter at minor episodes, unusually loud voices—a kind of minor mass hysteria. After all, the students are part of a group, and group feelings are likely to pervade the classroom. A class can be happy, sullen, gay, silly, excited, voluble, or antagonistic, just as an individual can. This means that most students will react similarly; their faces will hold the same kind of look.

Other Contributors to Discipline Problems

I am sure we wouldn't have so many discipline problems in this school if only the principal would back me up. I know that if I tell a boy I'll send him to the office, he just grins at me; we both know he will get a nice speech and be sent right back. Well, I for one think it is the principal—or assistant principal or someone—who ought to stand behind the teacher and give some really good help right where it is needed and when it is needed. After all, one can't do a good job of discipline with 35 other kids looking on. I think a principal should stand for order and authority.

The trouble with Garfield High School, among other things, was the principal. The teachers were friendly, and most of the students were okay—if being obedient and docile is being okay. But the principal—well, he was enough to make anyone get angry. There are many incidents I could report, like his twisting a boy's ear in the lunchroom because he laughed too loudly, but the thing that really made everyone upset was the time he got on the intercom and for five solid minutes told the whole school that he just thought they were a bunch of riffsrafs, no-good slobs, and other coarse and insulting things. Later I learned that the tires on his car had been slashed over the weekend. I don't really blame the kids. I was pretty mad, too.

Problems that disturb students, and teachers, can have their source in other school personnel and other school situations. Some schools are perennially troubled by reports of problems on the school buses. Where many students ride an overcrowded school bus or must travel on one over a long distance, one can expect to find recurrent discipline problems. Some may come to the attention of the teacher; many will not. But the sullen, taut, or angry faces in a first-period class may well be the result of a disagreeable bus incident. Sometimes the bus driver may be the cause; other times it may be interracial conflict, as in newly

desegregated areas. In other instances it may be a particular group of rough students who push and shove and generally make life miserable for others.

Some school regulations may be the source of discipline problems. One junior high school had a sign-out sheet posted at the front of the room. The student had to put his name on the sheet; indicate the time he was leaving, the time returning; and what he did while he was out of the room. This lent itself to the use of popular four-letter words, which the teacher had to deal with somehow. Such regulations create problems rather than solve them.

Inconsiderate use of the public address system may also lead to disturbances and disorder. Some administrative personnel seem unaware of the effects of these announcements on the unseen classes.

The student teacher was struggling with a particularly intricate set of instructions for a laboratory experiment. Over the public address system came the words, "Excuse the interruption, but will the following students please report to Miss Collins." Twenty names were read. Ten minutes later, "Please excuse the interruption . . ." and another twenty names were read. This continued at 10-minute intervals during the whole class period. The class was angered, the teacher was rattled, and the instructions were of course not completed. Upon inquiry, it was learned that all the students being called upon were juniors; since this science class was for twelfth graders only, the observer wondered why the intercommunication buttons for all other classes had not been turned off.

The rather continual complaint about poor food in the cafeteria can lead to school problems that inevitably become classroom problems. In one school the din in the cafeteria was deafening, but no one was allowed out until the dismissal bell rang. These students went to their next class half-deaf and sullen. The teachers who received them knew that at least five minutes would be lost because of the effort required of these students simply to become calm and quiet and to recover from the assault on their nerves and stomachs.

The split-lunch period is also difficult for teachers and students. This educational monstrosity takes place when lunch periods must be arranged on three or more shifts. In order to accommodate all the students, some classes meet for 30 minutes, go to lunch for 24 minutes, and return to their classroom for the remainder of the time, another 25 minutes. Before lunch, the students are of course hungry and know that they have not much more time to wait; when they return from lunch they are buoyed up by the release from academic routines and the frenzy of seeing their friends, plus the rush to get to the cafeteria and eat in the minimum time allotted. Although some administrators have been able to work out schedules that eliminate the split-lunch period, some seem unable to do so. Hopefully the new pattern of flexible scheduling will completely eliminate this cause of class disturbance. While some teachers and students are not upset by these irregularities, students and teachers with particularly tender nerves, or who live on the edge of upset, will find such administrative disruptions sometimes more than they can adequately deal with.

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There are other peripheral persons and activities that can contribute to student unrest: a rigid hall monitoring system, for instance, a grim and unfriendly school secretary, or an unsympathetic and suspicious school nurse. Or there may be a schedule of activities which is always being changed or shifted without prior notice. Some schools have three or four bell schedules depending on whether there is to be all-school testing, assemblies, ballgames, or some mysterious administrative decree. But as teachers and students state, no one knows what the bell schedule will be from day to day. Again, with the easily disturbed student, these kinds of unexpected events are likely to trigger undesirable classroom reactions. Where teachers and administrators can work together on routines, regulations, and a minimum of interruptions and sudden changes, there is more apt to be harmony and a relaxed atmosphere. A good administrator, too, is quickly aware of such problems as a bus driver who offends students, or a clerk who is needlessly surly, and takes steps to help these people work with youth.

Classroom Procedures

In meeting discipline situations arising from student reaction to school life, the teacher's approach should be to deal with the group as a whole. The following courses of action are suggested:

Accept the feelings of the class. The wise teacher recognizes the contagion of restlessness and tension. He does not consider this a personal affront. He does not become aggressive because he knows that such action will only bring retaliative aggression from his students. If he gets angry, the class will get angry in turn. Nor does he become worried and let the class observe his insecurity. He may note, with the kind of good humor most natural to him, the temper of the class.

Provide an activity in keeping with the class atmosphere. If a class's reactions are very different from its usual ones, the teacher should not expect to carry on regular class activities. Even if a specific activity has been scheduled, it is sometimes wiser, when a class is really restless or disturbed, to propose instead some active, interesting, and attention-getting device: a drill game (see Chapter 11), group quiz, or some other type of short-term group activity (see Chapter 9), or general class discussion of a controversial topic of interest. All these approaches help to release the stored-up steam in students.

Avoid using repressive or anxiety-producing devices. Some teachers have been known to spring a test on a class when it gets unruly. As a result, the teacher finds the class antagonistic and hostile. His future attempts to win students will be handicapped.

Do not give an assignment the night before a big game, or for the evening of the day when some major school activity is scheduled. The battles over assignments are cruel enough without provoking worse trouble. One teacher who failed to observe this principle was in periodic conflict with his class over delinquent homework. He seemed to go out of his way to give students lengthy

themes on the nights of the league basketball games. Needless to say, he received few themes the next day.

Discuss the problem with the class. The teacher who recognizes the feelings of his class and then says, "Well, we all feel restless today; but work must go on. There are a number of important things to get done in class; how should we go about doing them so that our high spirits don't get in the way?" will do much to establish rapport with his students. Talking things over also permits students to gain an objective view of their own behavior and enables them to modify it toward more adult patterns.

Special Problems for Men and Women Teachers

The types of student misbehavior considered in this section are undoubtedly familiar. So many of us, in our school careers, have indulged in such antics to—provoke? irritate? attract?—the teacher. There are some special hazards depending on the sex of the teacher.

Special Problems for Men Teachers

At least once a year a man teacher will find that some girl tries to get out of doing the work, to escape from a general application of the rules, by using "feminine wiles." These often involve coyness and pretensions of fragility and feminine incompetence. Another device that girls use on men teachers is "the weeps."

As one teacher remarked, "I'll do almost anything for a student rather than have her cry; when I see the danger signals—shiny eyes, trembling lip, shaking voice—I just want to run; so I say 'yes' before I know it, and am committed to something unfair to the other students."

Of course, some students are perfectly sincere; and since they are especially emotional during adolescence, tears come because of the stress of feelings. It is important to distinguish, however, between the genuine and the pretended emotion.

Another problem is that young male teachers particularly may find themselves the object of some adolescent girl's displaced affection. Such adolescent crushes should be discouraged—tactfully but decisively. Meetings or contacts with such a student alone should be avoided. A great deal of discretion must be exercised by male teachers in any situation that could even remotely be misconstrued by those prone to do so. The poignant and eventually tragic case of a student crush described by Bel Kaufman in *Up the Down Staircase*¹ is an excruciating example of teacher insensitivity. Such situations do not usually result in overt tragedy, but they can be just as painfully cutting and destructive in the long run if not diplomatically handled. What are some possible ways of handling the situation encountered by a student teacher?

¹ Bel Kaufman, *Up the Down Staircase*. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1965.

On a teacher-evaluation form I asked my students to complete, one girl wrote, "I crave your mind and body."

Special Problems for Women Teachers

Women teachers sometimes feel handicapped because of their inability to use the implied threat of physical force to get the bigger boys to behave. Since many women teachers are actually shorter and slighter than the students they have in class, this fear is understandable. But the woman teacher should not use unfair, or psychologically false, disciplinary methods. It is possible for a woman who is a mere 5 feet tall and weighs all of 103 pounds to be just as poised, calm, reasonable, and firm as a male teacher who was formerly a football star. Few schools will tolerate a teacher who continually uses physical force, so it is obvious that force is no real threat to the students in most school systems. Inner poise and an intelligent use of good educational practices are a woman teacher's best safeguards. Such a teacher should not be susceptible to the flattery of the mature boys in her classes; they will use many of the wiles of their sisters, but may be more subtle about it.

Boys will get crushes on their female teachers, but they are likely to be somewhat more inhibited in their expressions of such feelings. It may be that they perceive a threat to their masculinity because they see the teacher as older, and presumably more experienced, in such matters. Even so, there may be suggestions or intimations of a sexual nature to test the teacher's reaction. Written work may be handed in, containing passages with possible double meaning or—in some rare instances—statements that are clearly suggestive. The teacher's disapproval and distaste for such statements should be made clear. This is likely to prevent any recurrence; but if such behavior should persist an evaluation of the situation by the teacher, the principal, and the school psychologist is in order, but with all due safeguards for the student.

Student Strikes and Protests

When I was teaching in the mountains during the second year of World War II (that was 1942, I believe), the rumor swept our little mountain high school that there was going to be a student strike. The full impact of tire rationing had been assessed by the school board of our school and the schools in the surrounding counties, and there had been an agonizing agreement that there would be no interscholastic athletic activities "for the duration." Well, the students were in no mood to give up their beloved sports. After all, living in such isolated communities, the chance to go 200 miles to play another school or the excitement of having a game at home were events of major significance. What did I do? Well, I did not teach any social studies that day, I can assure you. I had half the senior class in my Social Problems course, and all the juniors in my United States history course, plus some freshmen and sophomores in Latin American history, so we just talked about the strike, the reasons for it, and—well, there was no strike. I like to think I helped avert a crisis.

Student strikes are fortunately infrequent, but they are not a new thing. A number of years before general attention was focused on school integration, there were student strikes revolving around racial issues. Recently, however, newspaper headlines have been devoted to student strikes and protests of all kinds. The most serious to date have been on college and university campuses. Institutions have been closed for days or weeks, classes disrupted, students arrested—and in some cases shot and injured—and school property has been damaged and destroyed. The protests have been analyzed by many writers. They have been sparked by a range of issues, from the seemingly trivial—such as cafeteria food—to the serious—protesting university involvement in secret military research, for instance, or protesting the prejudiced treatment of minority groups.

At the secondary-school level the protests and/or strikes have been overshadowed by better publicized college eruptions across the country. Secondary schools are also being rocked by student protest. For instance, one school in Washington, D.C. was closed for two days because students refused to attend classes unless their demands for 1) better food and 2) courses in black history and culture were met. The students also made it clear that they were dissatisfied with the quality of their education, complaining that even after 12 years many of them felt they lacked basic skills; they insisted that the system do something about it. A number of secondary schools have reported student groups petitioning for black history and culture courses, some also asking that Swahili be taught. Reports indicate that some school systems have acceded to student requests, while others have been resistant and annoyed. The development of Freedom Schools, with or without official sanction, indicates a positive desire on the part of students for relevant learning.

It is always dangerous to predict the future, but it seems probable at the time this is written that secondary schools will increasingly reflect the kinds of protests which have disrupted colleges. Students will insist on more relevant education and will not be averse to exercising "student power" to get what they want. Where there is a racial issue, the requests will, in all probability, revolve around requests designed to enhance Negro self-esteem, such as having more black teachers or administrators or more courses in black history. Students may ask increasingly for a part in developing school regulations and policies and for a stronger role in self-government. It is probable that secondary-school students will not sit passively in classrooms with boring or incompetent or obviously biased teachers. Underground newspapers appear increasingly in the secondary schools. In one school system the students who published an underground (unapproved) paper were expelled; the next week there were six underground papers at the same school.

What these protests and strikes are saying to adults should be clear: youth are learning that failure is not always their fault and that they do have ideas about what is right and wrong; also they are learning by way of the mass media how to organize and make their wishes, not only known, but felt. The youth of today have lived as near riots as their television sets and they have heard leaders and antagonists speak, argue, and fight. Secondary-school adolescents are not

children; as wars continue, many of them will, immediately upon graduation, be involved in life and death situations. Why should they be patient with incompetence? Why should they care if it means a prison sentence? There is, as some of these youths see it, no future anyway.⁴

The wrench in perception that this means for the older generation can only be estimated. The agonies suffered by college and university personnel over student protests have been only too visible. Yet, as all accounts show, these protests have been effective: racial barriers have dropped, school policies have changed, and students have been given more voice in their own affairs and their education. These victories of their very-near elders are not lost upon secondary-school youth. They too are asking that schools practice what they preach—a hard thing to do.

A list of recommended reading on discipline will be found at the end of Chapter 16.

⁴ Jean D. Grambs, "Riots and Disorders: Getting Your Money's Worth from American Education," *Catholic Educational Review*, LXVII, November 1969, 123-132.

Trouble *student-made*

16

The secondary-school teacher must live with an average of over one hundred students a day. For sheer self-preservation, an atmosphere of relaxation, interest, and quiet order should prevail. But adolescents have many life experiences to explore, understand, and absorb. These pressures, social and personal, make it difficult for many students to accept gracefully the numerous demands of the school and to perform the tasks of learning in a compliant and interested fashion. This chapter will discuss the problems that arise out of students' adjustment as adolescents in American culture and the problems that arise from the deeper personality needs of individuals.

Finally, the overall problem of discipline in terms of a philosophy of discipline will be considered. It is important to establish a frame of reference which will enable teachers to distinguish effective, mature, constructive, democratic discipline from repressive, punitive, and destructive procedures.

Student-Caused Discipline Problems

Many acts that disturb orderly classroom learning are merely the result of adolescents acting like adolescents; others arise out of deep, unmet needs of individual personality.

An analysis of the kinds of misbehavior which particularly plague teachers and

disrupt classrooms reveals four major categories whose primary cause can be said to lie with the students themselves. These are:

- Discipline situations arising from student-student interaction
- Discipline situations arising from student reaction to school routines and institutional procedures
- Discipline situations arising from immediate personality needs: "adolescents acting like adolescents"
- Discipline situations arising from long-term personality needs.

Discipline Situations Arising from Student-Student Interaction

A student cannot be expected to behave if seated day after day beside someone he detests anymore than an adult can be expected to control his feelings in a similar situation. A discipline situation may also arise from the reaction of students to others they like very much. The kinds of problems for the teacher that arise in the area of student-student interaction are primarily the following:

1. Continued and disturbing conversations
2. The passing of notes
3. One student's dependence on another for all his work
4. Flirtations
5. Cheating

Below are some typical examples.

1. The sophomore class had just returned from an assembly. Mr. Maxwell realized beforehand that the class would probably be full of energy and would want to discuss the assembly and for approximately 15 minutes he discussed with them their reactions to the assembly. After ample energy and tension had been released through discussion, he led into the topic for the day. The conversion was neatly done and completely unrecognized by the class as a control measure.
2. Sherman and Gerald were seated one behind the other and were obviously close pals. The two had been assigned, as a joint task, the job of presenting an oral report to the class. Mr. Span asked Gerald to read to the class a portion of a set of printed regulations governing sanitation in restaurants. Gerald didn't reply at once, but his friend Sherman volunteered to do it instead. Mr. Span said that he wanted Gerald to read it. Gerald announced that he "guessed" that he had "left it home." Mr. Span told him to speak extemporaneously, telling the class whatever he could remember. Gerald did so. Actually, the printed matter was on his desk the whole time. Later, Mr. Span discovered that Gerald, a ninth-grade student, was for all practical purposes a "nonreader" and very self-conscious about it. His friend Sherman "carried him along," trying to do all his work for him.

3. One day Miss Swann left the room for a few minutes. Several students began to play "catch" with paper wads. This caused noise, and Miss Swann heard it on her way back to the classroom. Her manner was quiet but firm; she expressed disappointment in the disrupters and said she was sorry that she couldn't trust them. The students respected her and showed obvious shame for causing trouble.
4. A group of ninth-grade girls, including the daughters of two of the most influential families in the district, accused a group of four Mexican-American boys of saying nasty things to them. The boys denied it. The leader of the group of girls insisted; and since she had never been known to lie, the boys were reprimanded, deprived of participation in the baseball game, and restricted in their activities to a very small portion of the schoolyard. The next day one of the boys refused to come to school. The others were sulky and rebellious, especially toward the teacher. Mr. Bell, the principal, asked the pupil personnel worker to talk to them. That afternoon one girl came to Mr. Bell. She told him that the boys had really been speaking Spanish and had said nothing bad. The other girls had not understood and had given the words their own interpretation. Mr. Bell called the boys in and apologized.
5. In the class there were about fifteen boys and ten girls. Mr. Pasqual was lecturing in a monotonous low tone; and while the boys were being noisy, the teacher ignored them. Then one of the boys picked a hammer from the shelf and hit another boy on the knee—apparently to check his reflexes. The teacher jumped up and separated the boys, but the class had broken into laughter. Mr. Pasqual then said very sternly, "Don't anyone laugh without my permission!" The class became quiet again, and the two boys were placed on opposite sides of the room. Mr. Pasqual had just settled back in his chair when one of the two boys raised his hand. The teacher recognized him and he asked, "May I laugh?" There was not much order restored for the remainder of the period.
6. The class was supposed to be reading the assigned section of the text. At one point a noticeable din was heard coming from a table toward the rear of the class where six girls were seated. They had been quietly talking and laughing, but it had become rather loud and clearly distracting to both the teacher and the students. Mr. Brzowski jumped to his feet and called to one of the girls. He told her that she had been warned enough in the past and to leave the classroom; he would speak to her later. The girl protested that she hadn't been talking, so why should she leave the room? The teacher said she should leave because he had told her to. Again she said she hadn't been talking and the whole scene repeated itself. Finally, when the teacher didn't back down, the girl left.

The examples above show both poor and good practices in relation to some of the typical disturbances created by student interaction. It should be helpful to summarize the teacher's most effective tactics in dealing with them.

Continued and Disturbing Conversations

Ignore the conversation if the rest of the class is absorbed in activity. The students who are talking may eventually be drawn into the group activity without requiring a special reprimand.

Walk around the room, making it a point to stand near students who are more likely to talk than others. If a student report is going on, the teacher should quietly place himself wherever he foresees that some trouble may emerge. Thus he can inconspicuously exercise control.

Call the students for a special conference; discuss the problems they create with the class; ask them for a solution.

Discuss the problem with the whole class if the disturbance is sufficiently widespread. Ask the class to agree on how to behave and to set up rules that should be observed. Have the rules posted if necessary. Thus the attention of offenders can be called to the rule they themselves made.

Study students who talk continually. Have they a special problem? They may be completely confused by the work. They may have missed class sessions or be beyond their intellectual depth. Or, they may have finished all their work and need extra assignments. Some talkers are exhibitionists and have to learn how to channel this bid for attention. These are best handled by giving them ample opportunity to talk, not by stifling them.

Separating friends who seem to encourage each other to misbehave works no miracles! Instead of giggling together in the middle of the room, they may communicate across the whole breadth or length of the room and inconvenience that many more students. It is wiser to discuss the matter with the offenders, helping them see the benefits of being allowed to stay together and the possible penalty of separation if they refuse to do some self-disciplining.

Passing Notes

Like any other student-student disturbance, note-passing is often a symptom of class work that is boring and lacks challenge, or of pressing home problems. The main problem then is not the note, but a need to introduce a greater variety of activity into the classroom.

Never read a note aloud to a class; it may be highly embarrassing to you and crucifying for a student.

Carol, I really don't know what to do. I'm really mixed up!!! I really mean it. I don't want to stay here, because all I do is get screamed at, my parents don't trust me, they won't let me go out at night, what's the use of staying? The only reason I have to stay is my friends (YOU) and Tom, but Tom's leaving anyway. Diane wants him and Jeff to go with us. I would really feel safer then, but if I get caught with boys, my mother would never forgive me. EVER.

She'd probably take me to the doctor to get a test to see if I was pregnant. Oh GOD Carol, I don't know what to do. I just feel like leaving and never ever coming back, because this place is really, really messed up. I really mean it!!!

¹ Jean D. Grambs, "Youth and Educational Discomfort," *The National Elementary Principal*, 47, May 1968, 10-19.

Overdependence of One Student on Another

Leave a dependent friendship alone until a more desirable substitute is ready. The students usually need each other and should not be deprived of help until better relationships with others can be built. Give them joint projects; use group methods to wean them slowly away from each other if it seems desirable. Find some skill on the part of the dependent student and encourage him to develop it.

Flirtations

Do not try to meet the problem head-on. A person intent on attracting the attention of the opposite sex will do so whether permitted to or not. The problem is best met by permitting more, rather than less, socialization by way of content-centered group work so that students can become acquainted without having to disrupt the class to do so. Then, if the problem continues, the teacher has a firm basis upon which to discuss the actions with the offending person.

Avoid making a public issue of a discipline situation. Students will be quick to laugh at the teacher who tries to shame students into ceasing flirtations. The teacher will only gain the reputation of being stodgy and will have made his problem worse. (A dramatic example of this occurs in the short film *No Reason To Stay*. See film list following Chapter 18.)

Cheating

Reorganize test or assignment structure. Cheating occurs when the teacher has made it impossible for students either to learn the right answers or to achieve good grades by acceptable means (see example on page 354; see also the discussion of cheating in Chapter 13).

Discuss the problem of cheating with the class. Examine the consequences of cheating and suggest that the class think through the problem.

Lift pressure off individuals who consistently cheat. Provide such students with other ways of gaining recognition for achievement.

Provide the opportunity to do poor work over. In this way, students will not be forced to cheat in order to make good on the one chance provided.

Discuss cooperative learning and how students can help one another without being guilty of cheating.

To end this analysis of discipline on a positive note, here are some descriptions of teachers managing with varying degrees of adequacy some of the kinds of problem behavior discussed in this section:

The class was a tenth-grade English class engaged in poetry reading and oral interpretation. The class was reading such poems as "The Pilgrim Fathers," "Chicago," "Thanatopsis," and "The Road Not Taken." In the midst of all this serious reading, Rocky jumped to the stage and began in his most resonant, solemn voice, "Hickory Dickory Dock. The mouse ran up the clock . . ." The class became hysterical with laughter. So did the teacher.

The class was just getting seated when Joe came in. As he walked past Mike, Mike put out his foot and tripped him. Joe slugged Mike in response. As the fight was getting under way, Mr. Strumlauf, the teacher, walked in, quickly sat down at the piano and sounded a chord; class began. The fight stopped. The students took their seats and paid close attention. The whole class expected to be reprimanded, but no mention of the incident was made.

A girl in business law class had been absent a few days and had just returned to school. Starting at the beginning of the period, she began talking to the other girls sitting in her immediate vicinity. At first the talking did not disturb the class, but as it prolonged it grew louder. The teacher asked the girl to be quiet but in a few minutes the talking began again. Miss Thomann, a young woman, said to the girl that she realized that she had just come back to school and had a lot of news to catch up on, but couldn't she do it after class? She said this with such obvious good humor that the other members of the class laughed with her, and the girl said she was sorry and stopped talking.

Discipline Situations Arising from Immediate Personality Needs

Some discipline situations arise primarily because adolescents are adolescents. It is important to distinguish these normal manifestations of misbehavior from the deeper personality problems and disorders that will be dealt with later in the chapter. How does a teacher know whether student misbehavior is merely surface reaction or something deeper? One psychologist² has suggested a way of distinguishing the two: the surface misbehavior can be controlled by external means. That is, the surface act of aggression, as an expression of ordinary adolescent reaction to adult authority, can be dealt with by a firm tone, by a brief nod, or by being ignored. The student relinquishes the misbehavior easily when the adult toward whom it is directed acts reasonably and confidently. But discipline problems that arise because adolescents are genuinely troubled, either by basic maladjustment in their whole personality structure or because they must endure impossible home or environmental situations, have the following characteristics:

1. They persist; they do not respond to normal teacher control.
2. They are manifest in many kinds of unruly actions.
3. There seems to be no logical connection between one misbehavior and another.

Personality may be thought of as layers of reaction systems: superficial misbehavior comes from the periphery of the personality; deep behavior problems come from the central core of the personality. Both may have similar manifesta-

² Roger G. Barker, "On Discipline," Stanford University, August 1950. (Unpublished lecture.)

tions; but, as previously noted, the surface problem can be handled by normal teacher control; the deep one cannot.

The kinds of superficial misbehavior indicated here are the following:

- Failure to do homework or an assignment
- Refusal to obey a teacher request
- Impudence
- Student-provoked "accidents" and other minor misbehaviors

Skillful handling of disciplinary problems such as these is a major factor in teacher success.

Failure To Do Assignments

The basic problem in handling any of the above situations is, of course, the attitude of the teacher toward what appears to be a breach of discipline. If we view failure to do an assignment as a personal affront, then punishment is the only recourse. On the other hand, if failure to do an assignment is a problem that concerns both the teacher and the student, then it is open to mutual discussion. Why do students fail to do assignments? Some possible reasons are:

1. Assignments are unclear.
2. Assignments are dull, irrelevant, or stupid.
3. Assignments are too difficult for an individual.
4. No place at home to do the assignment.

Classroom Procedures

In dealing with failure to do assignments, the teacher will want to check his own teaching practices (see section on assignments, Chapter 11) and then advance to other causes. When failure to do an assignment results from these other causes, the best policy is to deal with the problem on an individual basis.

Since the area of assignments is one of the major battlegrounds between teacher and student, it may be well to cite a few important strategic errors to avoid:

Do not demand a public explanation from each student who failed to do his assignment. One will be forthcoming. The class clown will quickly rise to the occasion and make a wisecrack that will set the class laughing at the teacher.

Do not argue with one student in front of the entire class regarding what he did, or did not do, on an assignment. If it appears that a student is going to start an argument, the teacher should immediately divert the discussion: "Well, Sally, perhaps we had better discuss this later, when it won't take time away from the rest of the class. Now . . ." and continue with a comment directing the attention of the class to the work ahead.

Do not let failure to do assignments continue without taking action. The student may need help. Do not assume that the whole process of self-discipline has been fully learned by every class member. Many need support, specific study aid, and basic understanding to get them further along the road to maturity.

The teacher who says, "Well, if they don't get their assignments in, let them suffer the consequences at the end of the semester" is doing a grave disservice to students and building trouble for himself as well.

Do not forget the obligation implicit in giving an assignment. Giving an assignment and then forgetting to collect it, or failing to return it, or returning it late are all evidences of poor teaching. Students will not do assignments in such an atmosphere.

Boys particularly are unlikely to finish assignments that they see as senseless or repetitious. One school official reports that mathematics teachers will sometimes assign 10 problems that illustrate one principle. Boys will soon discover it is basically the same problem and get bored and not bother to finish. But the girls will plow on through and get the good grade.³

Whenever the teacher deals with superficial misbehavior, he should keep in mind this cardinal principle: Never construe student misbehavior as a personal attack. As soon as the teacher does feel that student misbehavior, of whatever sort, is an affront to his own personality and authority, he cannot react effectively. This basic principle must continue to be emphasized in connection with other discipline situations that arise from the periphery of the student's personality.

Refusal To Obey a Teacher Request

Mrs. Jerome was conducting an oral reading period. In a friendly manner, she asked Phillip to read, just as she had asked others to read. He refused. The first time this happened she passed over it and went on to another student. "But," she asked a teacher down the hall, "what shall I do the next time it happens?"

The teacher has several ways of dealing with a situation like this. For example:

Never call on the student again for that activity. The student may never learn how to read orally, but he is also prevented from making a real issue out of it with the teacher.

Give him an F, tell him you have done so, and continue to call on him when it is his turn.

Insist that he do his task as the other students have done theirs.

Wait until it happens again. If it does, accept his refusal. Then check his cumulative record, talk to other teachers, and finally ask him to talk with you about his school work.

It should be obvious that the fourth course of action is most likely to produce some workable solution. Why?

As observed in Chapter 15, beginning teachers usually enter the classroom with expectations that discipline situations will develop. But note what can result from the assumption that students will misbehave.

³ "School Procedures Held Favoring Girls and Penalizing Boys," The Washington Post, April 24, 1955, p. B-1.

It was the day after the first United States spaceship made its orbit of the earth. In art class the teacher instructed the students to express their feelings. I was observing in the class and noticed that one of the students was busily painting a realistic replica of a spacecraft. I strolled over to his desk and watched him work for some time. When he was finished, I commented on his fine work and asked him his name. "John Glenn," he replied curtly. "What's yours?"

"Franklin D. Roosevelt," I replied. He looked at me with a very puzzled expression on his face. Later, after class, I asked the teacher what the student's name was who had drawn the spacecraft. "John Glenn," she replied.

Although the circumstances in this instance were unusual, the expectation that students would "smart off" caused this beginning teacher to get off on the wrong foot with at least one student. The expectation of unreasonable or inappropriate behavior can cause the very situation one wishes to avoid. Contrary to this, the expectation of reasonable behavior, of good behavior, is a potent tool in the hand of the teacher.

It is particularly effective in dealing with incipient refusal to comply with a teacher request. But this expectation can exist only if the teacher has made the basic assumption that the student is not really trying to harass him, but is reacting to a symbol of adult authority.

Refusal may be reasonable and understandable. It is only the consistent or aggressive refusal that warrants action by the teacher. If the teacher follows up a refusal to obey and finds that a student has a reason that is—at least from his point of view—valid, the teacher can express interest or concern, or admit that he did not realize a problem existed. A bond is established with a student when he realizes that the teacher considers personal problems more important than unquestioning conformity.

Should the teacher ever force the issue, insisting that the student obey? A teacher should recognize a situation with a disturbing recalcitrant student for what it is—a struggle for power, student against teacher. The teacher feels he must win in order to assure any kind of future authority over the class. A public showdown between two personalities can be highly embarrassing for the teacher, often results in the defeat of the teacher, and rarely, even if the teacher "wins," helps relationships in the classroom. Showdowns, when necessary, should always be conducted in private. To test the limits of authority, to see how far he can push the authority that surrounds him without getting stopped, is a genuine emotional need for some individuals, particularly young children. They try to find out just how far they can go before Mother or Dad rises in wrath. Similarly, some immature adolescents (and some adults) who have found the authorities in their world somewhat unreliable and inconsistent will continue to try out the limits of any authority situation. They will see just how long they can continue aggressive or annoying behavior. The refusal to obey is one such manifestation.

The teacher who understands this need to defy authority responds to it by saying, in effect, "Eddie, you seem to want to find out how much you can get

away with in this class before I will get angry. Well, I don't think that will solve anything. But I suggest that we might talk together later about how I, and the rest of the class, expect you to behave as a member of our group." And the teacher then proceeds to attend to the concern of the rest of the class. Shortly thereafter, a follow-up interview will be needed (see Chapter 17). But the follow up should take place only after sufficient time has elapsed for the emotional reactions to have passed; then both teacher and student can calmly consider the roots of the rebellion.

Impudence

A parent who visited a school recently made the following observation:

The trouble with our modern schools is that the kids are just too fresh. Why, I heard a student whistle when Miss Green walked by. Another one saw me, waved his hand, and called out, "Hi, Mr. Jenkins," right in the middle of class. These kids are learning disrespect for adult authority; we need more discipline in our schools.

Parents of teen-agers are very vulnerable to adolescent attack. They particularly resent their own inability to make young people cease unpleasant behavior. Therefore, it is quite common to hear parents call upon the school to do the job of disciplining or complain that if the schools had only done a decent job, the young people would not be as they are. It is true that in homes where a good working relationship exists between all members of the family, the impudent remark is rare; in a home in which there is tension and uncertain authority, young people react to lack of security by being impudent.

Some actual classroom anecdotes are given here:

1. Attention was excellent during discussion of four questions. After Mr. Rose caused the wisecracker who said that December 20, 1860, was "five days before Christmas" to be expelled from the room, the class paid attention in a subdued manner.
2. During a question period, one of the students asked a foolish question, which was accompanied by the sudden flash of giggling. This attempt at impudence was nipped in the bud by Miss Arto, who simply said, "Bob knows that is a silly question, so I won't bother to answer it." With this phrase, Bob was halted, and the class returned to the discussion.
3. A boy in the class gave an impression of insolence in his replies to Mr. Basle's questions. Mr. Basle pointed him out to me: "Now take that student. He looks like a troublemaker but is really a good student who can do good work and usually does. His surface attitude isn't very encouraging; but if handled right, he works hard. It's very important to avoid starting off on the wrong foot with him."

When is the teacher justified in expelling a student? It is highly probable that the teacher in the first example above was reacting too severely. The remark was funny, not necessarily impudent. The teacher turned the remark into an attack upon himself. Perhaps the class remained docile, but it was coerced by fear of arbitrary punishment. Are these students learning anything about self-discipline? Are they learning to like the subject of the course? Are they developing attitudes of contempt for the wisdom of adults?

In the second example, the teacher meets the attack head-on. She feels that the question is foolish; she suspects that the student knows it; she makes it clear that she is not taken in by it. The tone of voice used by the teacher is the vital factor in the success of this procedure. Unfortunately, it is often a tone heavily loaded with sarcasm, hostility, irritation, or anger. In this example the statement that the teacher "won't be bothered" gives a somewhat faulty emphasis. It is the class whose time should not be taken to discuss a foolish question. The teacher might more wisely say, "Bob, that seems like a question that is somewhat off the point. We are now discussing the important parts of our topic today. Perhaps we can get to your question later."

It is important to remember that the teacher's initial judgment of a question as foolish may be erroneous. The student may genuinely be seeking a point of information. Therefore, the teacher should be careful to leave a loophole for the student to rephrase his question; or, if the class reaction differs from that of the teacher, he should quickly assess this by a glance around the room and retract the hasty judgment. He might say, "Well, I can see by your faces that this question is on your minds also. I didn't think it was a serious question, but apparently I was wrong. Now, Joe, what do you think the answer to Bob's question might be?"

The third example speaks for itself. Here is a teacher recognizing the need of some students to test the limits. This teacher sees that if he, the teacher, can react to the real need of the student and not feel that as a teacher he must be dominant in every relationship, he will be helping the student to outgrow his urge to attack authority.

Classroom Procedures

It is clear that no teacher can stand for consistent "fresh" behavior—the insulting, stage-whisper wisecrack; the insolent retort; the deliberate use of vulgar, near-obscene, or actually obscene language; the provocative, needling question. Sometimes this behavior is simply a deliberate baiting of the teacher; youngsters try out on teachers the same devices that, unfortunately, work on parents. Some typical devices of this nature are: contrasting one teacher's methods with another, with a clear implication that one is less successful; drawing a teacher into a futile "'tis'taint" debate or "Yes, I did—No, you didn't" dispute; arguing a point of behavior in front of the class. The student usually gets the better of this kind of argument, since in such a classroom climate the longer he can keep the teacher arguing and away from work, the more his fellow

students approve. When the teacher senses impudence either in an individual or in a group of students, he should go through some searching self-examination to detect his own contribution to the situation:

Do I expect insulting behavior?

Do I respond violently to any sign of attack?

Do I lose my sense of humor as soon as I suspect a student is being fresh?

Am I inconsistent in my relations with the class—happy one day and tired or harsh or chaotic the next?

Do I react to the slightest move on the part of a very few students? Are these students to whom I overreact outside my cultural group; that is, are they on a lower socioeconomic level, of a different racial group, of a different ethnic group?

Am I slow to bait? Do I get trapped by a student inquiry and descend to an argument with one student while the rest of the class listens with delight to the teacher being "taken"?

If the teacher concludes, after a searching self-inquiry, that a real behavior problem exists in the students themselves, the next step is to find which individuals in the class seem to be responsible for most of this type of trouble. An examination of office records and a comparison with other teachers' experiences may give the teacher some explanation of the behavior of these students. Armed with some prior knowledge, he can provide special recognition—a special leadership role or perhaps significant class responsibility—for the students who are most prone to impudence. Then individual conferences should follow. The teacher's role in these conferences should be primarily to help the student recognize those feelings about himself and about school which give rise to outbursts.

Student-Provoked "Accidents" and Other Minor Misbehaviors

Adolescents have an undeniable fondness for the unexpected. These "accidents" illustrate familiar minor behavior problems:

One day there was a slight disturbance when Jack almost fell into the aisle because his chair leg had given way. The students near him laughed a little. He blushed and giggled. Mr. Abrams looked at him and smiled. The rest of the class didn't appear to notice what had happened at all.

This was a commercial subject and intended primarily for girls. Of the boys who did enroll, most were there because they thought it was an easy course. This was especially true of the one senior in the class. "Red" seemed to be the ring-leader in devising practical jokes. One day he kicked the chair out from under Jeff, who was sitting with his chair tilted back. Mr. Roamer asked Red whether he was the one who had kicked the chair. But before Red could answer, Jeff said he had merely slipped. Mr. Roamer gave Red a look that implied he knew differently. The class continued its work.

Silence had descended on the room. Heads were bowed over test papers, pencils busily scraping over the desks. Each student was a model of concentration. "Ah-ah-ah-choo!" came from the middle of the room. Everyone looked up, startled. A flurry of giggling passed through the class. Miss Henrich stalked up to Dave and snatched his paper from him. "That was completely unnecessary, young man," she snapped. "Next time you have to sneeze, be polite enough to use a handkerchief. The rest of you get back to your test. Dave, you see me after school." Angry, annoyed, and puzzled looks could be observed on the faces of the students.

Classroom Procedures

A sense of humor, an ability to keep from overreacting, and an expectation of compliance with a reasonable request are the major requirements for meeting these so-called accidents. For accidents do happen; sometimes just to break the monotony, sometimes out of adolescent deviltry, but often because a book really is too near the edge of the desk, or a chair leg does collapse from overwork, or Susy really does have the hiccups. At any rate, the troublemakers should not be singled out for front-row seats. Teachers sometimes believe that these prominent positions inhibit misbehavior. This is rarely the case. Instead, mischievous students now have the whole class behind them to observe their pranks. Incidentally, when teachers talk in front of a group, note where their eyes fall: not on those in the front row, but rather on the students in the middle seats in the middle rows.

Sometimes students substitute startling behavior for accidents.

Miss Sanchez was correcting sentences on the chalkboard. She had her back turned and just as she turned to the class she saw John, who was sitting next to the side board, write someone else's name plus a nickname under his own work. When she came to John's work, she said nothing but drew a line through the fake name.

When incidents such as these occur, the teacher should ask himself, "Is this important enough to disturb the process of learning?" Sometimes teachers take so much time in conflict with students over minor disturbances that little time is left for creating a good learning atmosphere. It is often wisest to ignore the petty disturbances. An isolated expression of adolescent exuberance is not a sign of poor discipline and should not be treated as such.

One student teacher reported the following:

Several students were at the chalkboard working problems. One of the students kept "squeaking" his chalk, much to the amusement of the class. I told him that if he would hold the chalk properly, it wouldn't squeak; but he said he wasn't doing it purposely. Finally, in exasperation, I said, "Here, let me show you!" When I grabbed the chalk and drew a line on the board, it squeaked louder than ever. The class roared with laughter—I had to laugh, too.

However, if the disturbance is likely to disrupt the class continually, or is a symptom of a need on the part of the student to attract attention and gain recognition, the teacher must prepare to deal with it in the same way as was suggested for impudent behavior.

To close this section, here are two incidents in which students were given permission to leave the room but returned late.

Grace asked permission, just before the start of the class, to go to her locker. Mrs. Hope allowed her this privilege, and she departed. Some 15 minutes later she re-entered the room, somewhat hesitantly, to be greeted with these words: "Pardon me, Grace, but just where is your locker? Is it in this building?" The young lady flushed and took her seat amid considerable laughter, much of it coming from the left rear corner of the room, where the boys clustered.

Every day at 2:30 for a week, Tom, one of the older boys in the class, asked for a rest-room excuse. On Friday, when Tom asked at the usual time, Mr. Ruml kidded him and told him that this appeared to be quite a habit. Tom was slightly embarrassed. He did not ask for permission to leave in the days that followed.

The technique of public humiliation used in the first example is very unwise. The best procedure would be to ignore the late return, to treat it as though it had never happened, but to make a point of talking with the girl in private later. At that time, without an audience, the teacher might tactfully suggest that such a prolonged absence should be explained, although she personally is sure Grace must have had a very good reason. The teacher expresses, here, the assumption that the student's motives are acceptable. This kind of assumption is the quickest route toward obtaining acceptable behavior. Suspicion on the part of the teacher breeds distrust and defiance on the part of the student.

In the second example, the teacher is again treading on delicate ground. The school health records can be consulted to see whether they offer any clue; but even if none is discovered, the teacher should be wary of direct attack. The teacher, not the student, may be in the wrong. The teacher might say, in a private conversation, "Tom, I've noticed that you ask for a pass every day at about this hour. It's all right, since I know you wouldn't just try to get out of class this way, but I wonder whether you mightn't check with the school nurse if this continues." It would be wise to follow this up with a note to the school health department regarding the suggestion.

Discipline Situations Arising from Long-term Personality Needs

There are special problems presented by students whose adjustment to themselves and to their world has been so inadequate that they cannot behave as others do, no matter how desperately they may wish to conform. These are

students who are socially maladjusted and emotionally disturbed. Often they are not classroom discipline problems at all, but sometimes they are serious threats to good order.

First, of course, there is need for diagnosis. Using the results of tests of personal-social adjustment, the teacher may detect a future behavior problem before it arises. But, other clues are available. To recapitulate the criteria listed on page 370, serious misbehaviors are those:

1. That persist; that do not respond to normal teacher control
2. That are manifest in many kinds of unruly actions
3. That seem to have no logical connection to other misbehaviors

To a teacher, every student is like an iceberg. The unrevealed nine tenths of the student's life—his personal history, his family constellation, his previous successes or failures in school, his growth in heterosexual adjustment, his fears and anxieties about the future—may produce classroom misbehavior.

The teacher should remember that there are a few definitely deviant personalities among the adolescents he teaches. These we term "neurotic," "psychotic," or "psychopathic" personalities. One study of school dropouts reported:

Our dropouts had serious and multiple school problems that interfered substantially with the educational process. Most of them were either failing in their school courses or working far below their mental capacity, a majority were also truanting or cutting classes, and about half were presenting behavior problems in school. All of the students were unsuccessful in adapting to some school requirements or regulations, and three fourths were having trouble in more than one area of school life. . . . the youngsters and their parents had serious emotional problems and [the] school difficulties . . . resulted from emotional disturbances . . . 76% were suffering from character problems—maladaptations of the entire personality—in contrast to neurotic conflicts, which usually are of recent origin and more localized in effect.⁵

Students exist to whom reality is so terrifying, so brutal, that escape is imperative; but in seeking to escape, the personality structure becomes distorted and abnormal. The ordinary things of life become major hazards, and a normal response to the demands of daily living becomes impossible. The behavior that the teacher observes is symptomatic: the behavior is not the problem; it is, however, a symptom of something that is disturbing the student. For example, a student who lives in a world of dreams, of fantasy, who seems entirely unaware of what is happening, is demonstrating symptomatic behavior of a very serious sort. Another student, who seems to get violently ill before any examination, who turns pale with fright at having to answer a simple question, is also over-reacting to a normal demand of life. The teacher is not a diagnostician, or therapist trained to deal with neurotic symptoms. However, he should be sensitive to behavior that may be symptomatic of emotional illness. When suspect

⁵ Solomon O. Lichter and others, *The Dropouts*. New York: The Free Press, 1962, pp. 247-249. Copyright © 1962 by the Free Press of Glencoe, a division of the Macmillan Company.

behavior is observed, the student should be referred to those trained to help him. Other manifestations of personal maladjustment include the following:

- Extreme aggression; destruction of books, fighting, willful destruction of property, persistent and nonfunctional lying
- Compulsive stealing
- Extreme sexual offenses
- Extreme hostility to peers and adults
- Truancy
- Compulsive behavior; exaggerated fear or anxiety; tics; compulsive arm or leg or bodily movement; inability to sit still

From this list it can be seen that some forms of maladjustment lead to behavior directed against others and against the rules of society; some are directed against the adolescent's own person. Many delinquents have manifested these behavior problems before ever becoming delinquent. Their delinquencies may only be intensified, or even produced, by teachers who deal with their misbehavior as though the students were "bad," instead of as though they were in need of help.

In a study of young Negro men who had died by violence, the researchers noted that most of these had manifested problem behavior in school many years earlier:

Why was there a linkage between school problems and death? Certainly truancy and academic failure among these boys were not related to any lack of intelligence on their part. All of them had IQs of 85 or higher. Therefore, none had failed because of an intellectual handicap. In short, both their failures and their truancy may be regarded as evidence of childhood behavior problems. The boys' childhood behavior problems were carried on into young adulthood: they became alcoholics, drug addicts, criminals. They lived violently and they died either violently or from medical complications of their drinking. Or, failing in school, the young men dropped out and, unable to find work, lied about their age to join the army, where they died in the Korean war . . .

It was the school problems alone that dramatically predicted early deaths. Negro boys without school problems had a death rate even lower than the national rate for white boys.⁶

The disturbing question is the degree to which the school, by being insensitive to the needs of these young people, set them on the pathway to a violent and early death. When students demonstrate extreme forms of maladjustment, the teacher must have recourse to trained personnel—psychologists, psychiatrists, psychoanalysts, child guidance workers, social workers. These specialists should be available to the teacher through the immediate school system, the county or state school system, or private and public agencies of the community.

The main object of the teacher's control of such individuals is to prevent the student from injuring others through his behavior and, as much as possible, to prevent him from further injuring himself and to keep him coming to school. Rarely is it possible for the teacher to aid the adjustment of such a student in

⁶ Lee N. Robins, "Negro Homicide Victims—Who Will They Be?" *Trans-Action*, 5, June 1968, No. 7, 15-19.

any fundamental way. He is probably beyond the help of persons untrained in the field of psychotherapy. A strong effort should be made to make school rewarding and supportive. The teacher can only hope not to be one more burden to an already overburdened personality attempting to find a way of surviving.

One aid that lies close at hand, perhaps more readily accessible than any other, is utilization of some of the concepts derived from group therapy. The major emphasis in using the group to aid the individual is on establishing an atmosphere of acceptance and permissiveness. The teacher-leader is not a judge or parent substitute; rather, he is a stable, accepting, secure individual. The group interactions are the method by which the individual learns to compromise his own needs with those of others. In the high-school classroom, full-scale group therapy is not usually available, although it is possible that one day the school's guidance program will include group therapy work. But through judicious use of group procedures (see Chapter 9), the individual teacher can make more progress in dealing with seriously maladjusted students who create discipline problems than he can with almost any other teaching technique.

Hard-Core Poverty Areas—A Consideration

The recent resurgence of concern about hard-core poverty, slums, and juvenile delinquency has focused attention on the particular needs of schools in urban areas—particularly the big city schools. As middle-class Americans have moved to Suburbia they have left the inner-city areas to low-income groups—especially recent migrants to the city such as Negroes, Puerto Ricans, or Mexican-Americans. One result of this is that:

Schools that serve the slum areas of big cities are often tense and uneasy institutions. Reports of student violence and disorder make the press regularly. Research indicates that maintaining classroom discipline is the hardest task for the teacher at almost every grade level and, in fact, takes more time in some elementary schools than instruction. The demoralization of teachers and other school personnel in these schools has been documented. While there are many fine persons who have found a way to live with such social disorganization, the typical teacher, unfortunately, is not comfortable. The middle-class teacher, either Negro or white, cannot or will not realize that the slum child starts, educationally, from a different place than the middle-class child.⁷

Another result is that such schools contribute a disproportionate share of school dropouts. Usually, the male high-school dropout is one who has failed in his general school adjustment; he is not simply a person of too-low intelligence to do the required work.

One observer points out that:

One almost hesitates to raise the question as to what youth from the other subcultures really think of their teachers! . . .

⁷ Jean Dresden Grambs, *Schools, Scholars, and Society*. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1965, p. 55.

The fact is that many teachers today seem to be fearful, anxious, or angry. This is especially manifest in the teacher's relationship with the reluctant and recalcitrant learners in the big cities. The frequent cry heard for sterner and harsher measures in dealing with these pupils and for their removal from the regular classroom or exclusion from school would indicate that too many educators are now more concerned with the academic reputation of their school than with the welfare and the well-being of the nonachieving and nonconforming students.⁸

One factor compounding the problem of the economically deprived child is the strong middle-class-value orientation of teachers. Hickerson lists what he calls five unassailable assumptions that constitute a strong part of the moral backbone of American affluent society and which are adhered to by middle-class teachers:

1. Children should use decent language as opposed to vulgar language.
2. Children should employ grammatically correct language.
3. Children should exhibit "clean" attitudes toward sex, drinking, and generally loose behavior.
4. Children should talk over their problems rather than fight about them.
5. Children should understand the relationship between effort and reward as leading to future success.⁹

While teachers are usually recruited to fit the dominant community values, there are few teachers with the background or experiences to equip them for the situation found in slum schools. Schools in slum areas have a high rate of teacher turnover. Often they must recruit beginning teachers who, in many instances, were not considered attractive candidates by other schools. Thus the school usually serves to lower the already low self-image of the lower-class child and adolescent and to increase his feelings of hate.

The obvious fallacy of using the "get tough" approach with such students hardly needs further comment. Reading the following section on "What Discipline Works," consider how the discipline techniques described would affect such students.

What Discipline Works?

"It may not be the kind of theory they teach you in college, but it works" is a standard comment of many teachers when they defend or describe their methods of obtaining classroom control. Such a comment expresses primarily the view that discipline is for the teacher's peace of mind. It succeeds because the students do what they are told within the four walls of the classroom. But is it successful in a larger sense? Discipline must be related to the purposes that direct

⁸ William C. Kvaraceus, "Negro Youth and Social Adaptation: The Role of the School as an Agent of Change" From *Negro Self-Concept*. William C. Kvaraceus (ed.). New York: McGraw Hill, Inc., 1965, p. 112. (Paperback edition).

⁹ Nathaniel Hickerson, *Education for Alienation*. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1966, pp. 48-58.

the total educational program. Considered in this light, discipline really succeeds only when it contributes to the development of democratic individuals, enabling them to perform satisfactorily the various roles of worker, parent, and citizen.

It should be helpful to look at some of the common measures that "work"—punishment, neglect, and emotional blackmail—and see why they negate the broader education goals. An additional look at one uncommon measure that "works"—democratic group control—will show why it affirms these goals.

Punishment

Typical punishments are increased assignments, lowered grades, detention after school, public humiliation, dismissal from class, sending to higher disciplinary authority—or threats of all these. Is the effect of such punishments the creation of better student-teacher relations? From the point of view of the psychologist, punishment, by and large, is a very ineffectual way of obtaining genuine compliance.

Studies have shown that punishment merely serves to produce anxiety in the student and arouse retaliation from those toward whom it is directed. As Lichter puts it, punishment "creates additional trauma and anxiety for the youngster, strong feelings of shame, inferiority, and resentment. As a result he may redouble his efforts to handle these feelings of discomfort, intensifying the very defenses that have contributed to the difficulty in the first place."¹⁰

The extreme form of punishment is corporal punishment. Nash defines corporal punishment as "chastisement inflicted on the body in order to cause physical pain or suffering, usually with the professed purpose of modifying behavior."¹¹ Studies cited by Nash indicated that 72 percent of school superintendents favored the use of corporal punishment. Another poll revealed that 58 percent of high-school teachers approved its use. Still another poll indicated that 55 percent of American parents favor the use of corporal punishment. Presumably corporal punishment is administered as a last resort, but a great deal of evidence shows that such punishment does not serve as a deterrent to further misbehavior and that the psychological effects on the child can be quite devastating. As Nash states:

The child who has been physically punished becomes encompassed by anxieties that cause him to withdraw from the situations where otherwise he might approach, explore, and learn. He loses part of his capacity to learn because he cannot give his whole attention to the subject under study.¹²

It has been shown that violence is more likely to be regarded as a masculine, rather than a feminine, characteristic in modern societies.¹³ It has been hypothe-

¹⁰ Lichter, p. 101.

¹¹ Paul Nash, "Corporal Punishment in an Age of Violence," *Educational Theory*, 13, No. 4, October 1963, 295-308.

¹² Nash, p. 303.

¹³ Jackson Toby, "Violence and the Masculine Ideal: Some Qualitative Data," *The Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*, 364, March 1966, 20

sized that the structural features of contemporary societies create a problem of masculine identification, since boys grow up dependent upon their mothers. According to this hypothesis, much of the roughness and toughness associated with adolescent male behavior must be understood as an unconscious effort to repudiate a natural identification with "Mom."

Other studies have noted today's highly competitive school situation which produces competitive aggression. Again, boys are more affected than girls. Girls who cannot attain high academic aspirations may substitute marriage and motherhood as a system of achieving self-esteem, since our society holds these as adequate female roles.¹⁴ These studies illustrate the complexity of the causes behind the behavior exhibited in the high-school classroom.

The case against punishment is very well established. Yet we find classroom after classroom dominated by a punitive atmosphere. Detention rooms are common, and individual teachers use many varieties of punishing techniques. Why are these used when they are psychologically unsound? First, because they relieve teachers' feelings of aggression. Second, because they are at hand; that is, they require little effort on the part of the teacher to utilize. Third, because students themselves react toward punishment with a superficial acceptance and subsequent compliance: such measures "work." The question, though, as with other disciplinary approaches, is: for whom? Punishment works for the teacher to the extent that it aids him in maintaining classroom order and surface acceptance of his authority. But, as already noted, punishment works against the student as a developing personality. It must also be remembered that punishment inflicts a subtle injury upon the teacher, involving him in a punitive climate during all his working hours. Few people can resist the corrosive effects of such a climate, day after day and year after year.

There is another important explanation for the wide use of punishment. Young people, particularly among lower socioeconomic groups and some culturally less well-integrated ethnic groups, are often conditioned, through early family experiences, to understand and accept punishment. The individual may be a less adequate person because of these conditions; yet he knows no other sanction that will command his obedience. For this reason, many lower-class youth are simply amazed at a teacher who expects self-control from them on the basis of any other appeals.

It is obvious that what works with some adolescents will not, and should not, work for others.¹⁵ Punishment should therefore be used sparingly and only because it is a part of a larger acculturation process, which must have as its objective the development in students of an understanding of self-discipline and an appreciation of the disciplines of reason, fact, and society.

¹⁴ Lichter, p. 80; and Arthur L. Stinchcombe, *Rebellion in a High School*. Chicago: Quadrangle Books, 1964, p. 62.

¹⁵ Frank Reissman, *The Culturally Deprived Child*. New York: Harper & Row, Publishers, 1962; see also Frank Besag, "Deviant Student Behavior and the Role of the School," *Urban Education*, 11, No. 1, 1966, 31.

Isolation

Teachers sometimes discipline students by isolating them in a corner of the room, sending them into the hall for a time, or sending them to the library.

Students may be refused aid: "I'm sorry, but I won't help any student who does not remain in his seat like everyone else." Or, "Stanley, you just don't seem able to resist talking to your neighbors and bothering them; you will have to sit by yourself at the back table." Another method of isolation is to ignore provocative behavior as though it did not exist.

Such refusals of attention as we have just described get results. But the same question regarding how they work, and for whom, must be answered. Provocative behavior is motivated by some need; often it is an effort to gain attention that the individual craves. Isolation reinforces the very craving that induced the behavior in the first place. It is as though we said to a student: "If you once let me know you are hungry, I will refuse to give you food; if you don't show any hunger, then I will feed you." Isolation will probably result in a suppression of the undesirable behavior, but just as probably the cost to the individual will be great. This is not to say that teachers must react on the spot and at the moment when the provocative behavior occurs. Sometimes it is better to wait until there is time for a private conference. When it is evident that the student cannot be reached in private conference, it may be necessary to plan carefully exactly what activities in the classroom can help him become a more acceptable class member. This technique then involves temporarily ignoring the provocative behavior until more strategic measures can be applied. And this procedure is quite different from neglecting to react at all.

Emotional Blackmail

Both love and fear can be part of the emotional blackmail used by the teacher. The teacher who develops the feeling of "Now do this for me, because if you don't you will make me so unhappy," is being unfair.

Discipline was excellent. Mr. Halstead was a young teacher. He allowed the students to "buzz" a little almost whenever they wished. But if the buzzing became too loud, he would suddenly look very grieved and disgusted. After a moment or two of strained silence, he would burst into a mild tantrum in which he would shame the students for not acting their age. He would act hurt that he, who always treated them so well, should be subjected to this ungrateful treatment. His whole method of teaching seemed to be geared to a sort of a "proud but grieved parent" attitude.

Young people should be asked to do things in the classroom primarily because it is to their benefit as learners, because they are part of a group endeavor. They should not be told that misbehavior hurts one who loves them dearly.

Individual versus Group Discipline

Here is an example in which a whole class was punished for the actions of a few:

The art teacher gave her time only to the talented ones in the classroom. She marked us not on the ability we showed or the individual progress made by each student, but on how each of us in our drawings compared with her idea of good art. Her disposition was that of a typical old lady. One day she left the classroom, and one of my daring friends got the idea for us to put a wad of sticky chewing gum in her chair. Unfortunately she looked at the chair before sitting down. We were disappointed. She arranged for the entire class to be detained after school until the guilty party either gave himself up, or someone else turned him in. We sat there from 2:30 until 4:30 that day. Everyone in the class hated this teacher so much that no one dared squeal. Finally she had to let us go as several parents had called the school to find out what had happened to their kids. Although she didn't find out who the guilty one was, our entire class got grades of either C or D that semester.

In the following example, one individual is punished for the entire group:

I was on the high-school football team and the whole team was instructed by the coach to stay away from the pep rally in the park and to stay home and rest. Many of us decided to go to the rally. As fate would have it, there was an accident and names were taken. The coach was fit to be tied by our action and threatened to kick us off the team for the rest of the school year. My closest friend, who was also a member of the team, was chosen as a scapegoat and deprived of his uniform the next day. Since the rest of us were on the first string, the coach just gave us a lecture and told us to be ready to play the game of our life.

Punishing a whole class because the teacher cannot find a culprit is one of the devices most hated and resented by students. Whole class punishment for the misdeeds of one or two should absolutely be avoided by teachers.

The teacher can, and usually should, express the idea: "In this class, we just don't interrupt people when they are talking." Or, "Even if you don't feel like studying, Janet, since everyone else is, let's not annoy them." This approach reminds the individual of his obligation to the group and is effective with normal misbehavior.

In most instances of misbehavior that arise from deep sources within the individual, the group approach can be effective only in a therapy situation. Most of the teacher's efforts should be directed to understanding the individual and his problem, since the origins of the problem extend far beyond this classroom and this course.

Did It Work?

The most difficult of all the questions that must be answered concerning discipline is: did it work? One of the greatest frustrations of secondary-school teaching is the lack of continued contact with students. The teacher has a group for five days a week, an hour a day, for four months or even for nine months; then the students are gone. This contact is very slight indeed compared with the six hours a day, five days a week, for the whole school year, which is the privilege of the elementary teacher. It is not often that a secondary-school teacher is in touch with a student after he graduates and takes his place in the world, and this too makes it difficult to assess the effects of the teacher's methods of control. Did they actually make Douglas more self-directing? Did Jane really learn how to control her explosive temper? After all, it is the long-range effects that concern the teacher who desires to utilize democratic methods of discipline. But the teacher is almost invariably denied any knowledge of such long-range effects.

Selective Rewards as a Method of Discipline

The studies of learning and motivation that underlie some current educational programs are based upon a theory of "reinforcement" that is also applicable to classroom behavioral problems. Simply stated, the teacher responds with approval to that behavior which he wishes repeated and ignores behavior that interferes with the task at hand. Several procedures have been found effective with many kinds of students in varying circumstances and to varying degrees.

The "instant feedback" of programmed instruction is one instance of immediate reinforcement. The student knows almost as soon as he has given an answer to a question or performed a specific task whether he has done it correctly and can proceed to the next bit of work. In many classrooms, students must wait a long time before they find out if their work has been done correctly. If a test is given on Monday it may be several days, if not weeks, before it is returned. In too many instances the student receives a paper with items marked wrong and the grade. He may or may not find out what is wrong, and he may or may not have a chance to learn what is right. To implement reinforcement theory, the teacher would plan for almost immediate scoring of such tests and also immediate and helpful procedures for determining the right answer or the proper procedure.

Students who otherwise have failed to do school work often succeed when the curriculum is organized in small units of work and there is immediate and obvious "feedback" on performance, as some of the Job Corps programs have demonstrated.¹⁶ The kinds of discipline situations which arise because students do not do assigned work, or in which they disrupt classes because the work does not mesh with abilities, expectations, or motivations, is thus circumvented because careful attention is given to the principle of immediate feedback for tasks that

¹⁶ Lloyd Beant, "Lessons from the Rodman Experience with Dropouts," *Today's Education*, 58, February 1969, 52-54.

have face validity for the student. Jack, the presumed nonreader, becomes highly motivated to learn to read when he wants to pass the written portion of the driver's test to obtain a driving license.

Another significant application of the theory of reinforcement has been termed "operant conditioning."¹⁷ "Operant behavior is strengthened or weakened by the events that follow the response. Whereas respondent behavior is controlled by its antecedents, operant behavior is controlled by its consequences."¹⁸ Many teachers who appear to have severe problems of classroom discipline often actually provide reward for the very behavior they are trying to eradicate. Reward, in this sense, is approval by peers since the disrupting student has effectively "gotten the teacher's goat." Or the bad behavior has caused the teacher to focus all his attention on the misbehaving student, thereby feeding the student's need for attention.

In an experiment with some severely disturbed children, a system used was to "reinforce 'good' behavior and nonpunitively discourage 'bad' behavior."¹⁹ As these experimentors comment, "Study after study has shown that whenever a child persists in behaving badly, some adult has perhaps inadvertently, been rewarding him for it." Working out a system of reward that produces more good than bad behavior is a difficult task. One teacher, for instance, who was having trouble teaching spelling, as well as almost everything else, to a group of disruptive, disadvantaged eighth graders, found that they would at least attempt the spelling lesson when she promised to read them a story. For these students, being read to was considered a real treat; and they were willing to do something they disliked in order to get the valued reward. In another situation a group of boys in a detention home who would not cooperate in the required educational program, became remarkably motivated learners when each increment of learning was rewarded by tokens. These tokens could be used to "buy" time in the lounge for watching television or for buying a candy bar or soft drink, or, as the token system became increasingly elaborate, even a private room in a special cottage. The system worked so well that many boys who had very poor school records increased their reading and other skills significantly. In turn, their self-images as "bad boys" who were "stupid" were changed into those of boys who could be "good" and who could learn.

Many teachers instinctively utilize operant conditioning. They have learned that disruptive behavior may often disappear when it is successfully ignored by the teacher. This means that the teacher has some other task at hand so compelling, so interesting, so motivating to most of the class, that the disrupting individual gains neither the teacher's attention nor that of his classmates. Lacking an audience he either must go along with what the rest of the class is doing or be left out completely. Some students may turn disruptive behavior into escape behavior. Instead of being loud and noisy, the student sleeps or becomes apathetic.

¹⁷ Ellen P. Reese, *The Analysis of Human Operant Behavior*, Dubuque, Iowa: William C. Brown Company, Publishers, 1966.

¹⁸ Reese, p. 3.

¹⁹ Robert L. Hamblin and others, "Changing the Game from 'Get the Teacher' to 'Learn'," *Trans-Action*, 6 January 1969, pp. 20-31.

The teacher's strategy is then to find the reward system that makes sense to that student. Grades are the typical standard reinforcer for the middle-class, college-oriented student. Grades do not have the same motivating force for many other "types" of students. But personal attention, interest, the evidence of almost immediate "payoff" for doing a task, may all have to be tried in order to tap the motivating springs of students who are not acceding to reasonable educational expectations.

Democratic Discipline

Democratic discipline involves the same basic attitude toward teaching that was developed in the section on the democratic classroom (see Chapter 3). Democratic discipline stresses the joint responsibility of the teacher and the student in achieving a classroom atmosphere in which teaching and learning may take place. As Ausubel has noted, "Many educational theorists have misinterpreted and distorted the idea of democratic discipline by equating it with an extreme form of permissiveness."²⁰

The theory of discipline advanced here is one that conforms to democratic ideals—namely, that discipline is merely the kind of classroom control that is most likely to further the development of democratic personalities. Such democratic discipline avoids reliance upon external controls for maintaining classroom order; and this approach to discipline particularly eschews attacks upon the personality of the student being disciplined and harsh or vindictive measures of any type. The following checklist suggests questions that each teacher may use to evaluate the success of his own disciplinary techniques.

1. Are students developing the ability to obey rules because they understand what is reasonable?
2. Do students help one another in those situations that demand self-control? Does this helping occur because of concern for one another rather than because of a threatened reward or punishment from the teacher?
3. Does the need for the teacher to exercise control diminish as the group continues to work and learn together?
4. Can the students accept a substitute teacher or the unexpected absence of the teacher during the period without becoming disorganized or having to be held down by teacher threats?
5. Can the students develop their own rules of behavior and follow them fairly well?
6. Can students and teacher talk calmly together about class disturbances not anticipated in the rules and arrive at mutually acceptable compromises?

²⁰ David P. Ausubel, "A New Look at Classroom Discipline," *Phi Delta Kappan*, XLII, October 1961, p. 28.

7. Are students who seem to be the source of major problems of discipline being helped by group acceptance or by outside guidance from teacher or specialist?
8. Does the teacher enter the classroom feeling relaxed and in a mood for work? Does this feeling grow throughout the semester?
9. Do students enter the classroom feeling relaxed and in a mood for work? Does this atmosphere develop during the semester?

Test Your Theories

On the following pages are a number of descriptions of discipline situations. Some are well handled; some are poorly handled; some are not resolved at all. It is suggested that each reader think through his own line of procedure in each situation. He should ask himself: what is the possible consequence of the line of action taken or proposed? Does it conform with my theory of democratic procedures? Would I feel satisfied if I continued to use such methods day in and day out?

When John talked back to the teacher for the fourth time, the teacher turned on him and told him that if he ever did that again she would have to call the principal. She then sent him into the hall. She followed him out and after a few minutes they returned. The teacher looked smug and well-satisfied, but John looked like a volcano that was about to erupt. He did not repeat his behavior that day.

Alan, an almost-sixteen-year-old boy in an eighth-grade class, was sitting with his chair leaning back and his feet on the desk in front of him. Mr. Conroy noticed this but paid no attention for a while. Alan then started making "wise" comments to the boy across the room from him. These comments were loud enough to disturb the class. At this point, Mr. Conroy asked him to please sit in his chair properly and to keep his comments to himself until after class. Alan made a few last remarks, laughed, and straightened out his chair. In a few minutes he shifted the chair again.

We were seniors in high school, and all of us were quite active in many school affairs. My girl friend and I had tried unsuccessfully to see the music teacher about a practice between classes. About half-way through our home economics class my friend and I (we were in groups working on projects) decided to walk out of class and go to see the music teacher. Without asking the home economics teacher, we walked out. She just let us walk out, but soon after we returned she came over to our table and asked us if we hadn't known we were doing something wrong. We told her we did and told her our reason. She said, "Okay then. But don't do anything like this again." And it was forgotten.

The principal announced over the public address system that the homeroom

period would be extended for 5 minutes for certain business to be transacted in the senior homerooms. This was met by several comments from the students in the class. The teacher, tapping the desk with a ruler, said, "All right, quiet down! You must not disturb the other classes."

The class continued talking. Two boys in the back of the room began a "swipe-the pencil" game. A scuffle ensued. The teacher, standing with arms crossed, snapped, "I told you boys to behave. Settle down and cut out that foolishness!"

"Yeah," said one of the onlooking boys, "Yeah boys, settle down and be quiet or the little fairy will send you to the office."

A sudden silence came over the room as the other students looked from one to another to the teacher.

In a ninth-grade art class the students were working on individual projects when the teacher left the room for several minutes. Two boys in the back of the room discovered two long pieces of rope in a cabinet. They tied the rope around the legs of a stool and lowered it out the third-floor window. They then returned to their projects. Very soon the teacher from the room beneath stormed into the room yelling, "Who did that? Who lowered the stool out the window?" Of course we ignored her.

We were discussing an algebra problem with a substitute teacher. Substitutes usually have a hard time of it, but this one was pretty good and most of the class was interested and attentive. Then, bang! One boy's books fell to the floor. The boy muttered he was sorry as he picked them up, but he was smiling and looking at one of his friends. Soon another set fell—then another—and another. When the last set fell the teacher told the boy to just leave them there. She then remarked upon the rather odd sequence of coincidences and said she assumed it was accidental but just to be sure, everyone in class should place his books under his seat. After that there were no more interruptions.

The class was a large science lecture with the teacher lecturing and showing slides about the structure of the earth. Things were moving along quite well as most of the class seemed interested, when rather suddenly the teacher stopped the class. Then we became aware of a noticeable hum in the room. A few of the boys who hadn't been paying attention seemed to be smirking. We all knew what it was—a battery-powered vibrator was somewhere in the room—but it was a large room. The teacher then said, "Will whoever brought that thing in here please shut it off?" No one moved. Apparently whoever had it thought that the teacher would run all over the room looking for it. Instead, the teacher said, "Perhaps we can locate it the way earthquakes are located?" He then asked six people around the sides of the room to point toward where they thought the sound was coming from. As they did so they ended up pointing at one boy who blushing reached under his seat and turned it off. The teacher then returned to the front of the room and resumed class. I don't think the triangulation system really worked, but he gave those who wanted to go on with the class a chance to point out the guilty party without anybody being able to say he squealed.

RECOMMENDED READING

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- systematic approach to discipline which extends throughout the school and even to the home.
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- Lorenz, Konrad. *On Aggression*. New York: Harcourt, Brace & World, Inc., 1963. A controversial, but stimulating, discussion of aggression in animals and primitive peoples with implications for the aggression of "civilized" man.
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- McDonald, Blanche, and Leslie Nelson. *Successful Classroom Control* (2d ed.). Dubuque, Iowa: William C. Brown Company, Publishers, 1959. Many very concrete do's and don't's for the teacher. Examples for both secondary and elementary classrooms.
- Montague, Ashley (ed.). *Man and Aggression*. New York: Oxford University Press, 1968. Essays by various authorities regarding the nature of man and his ability or inability to control aggression.
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- Reese, Ellen P. *The Analysis of Human Operant Behavior*. Dubuque, Iowa: William C. Brown Company, Publishers, 1966. The procedure described here grows out of experiments and research in which desired behaviors are rewarded and undesired ones extinguished. There are important implications for teachers dealing with discipline situations.
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Is Anybody Listening?

counseling individuals and groups

17

In all ages, those who were called "great teachers" were those who were wise and judicious advisers as well as skillful instructors. Too often the secondary-school teacher seems aloof and unsympathetic, a mere giver of assignments and grader of examinations. Few students seek out such a teacher for help and advice. Most schools are fortunate enough to have at least one teacher who is the confidant of many students. Not all teachers can be great counselors, for this requires both special training and special personal qualities; but one can at least understand the obligation of the teacher to strive for insight. It has been said that there would be few, if any, delinquents if each student had one teacher in school each year who gave him warm friendship and understanding.

In this chapter some of the tools and techniques the teacher can use in performing his function as a counselor to the individual student will be discussed. The special problems of group guidance, vocational and academic counseling, and working with parents on the guidance problems of students will also be presented.

The Counseling Approach

It may be useful to point out the essential differences between the formal teacher and the teacher-counselor.

FORMAL TEACHER

His evaluation is concerned with subject-matter learning only.

Few personal interviews are held with students except about academic problems.

The student's counselor or other teachers are seldom consulted about the progress of an individual.

No home visits are made, and parent conferences at school are avoided.

The role of emotion in learning is discounted.

"Business as usual" is the motto for instruction no matter what is going on "outside."

These two kinds of approaches have been identified as those of the "controllers" and those of the "helpers."¹

The Guidance Needs of Adolescents

There appears to be common agreement that young people today are feeling more confusion and more distress than any generation before them. In Chapter 4 the current dilemmas of youth were discussed. The teacher who sees counseling and guidance as one aspect of his functioning will want to understand the specific needs youth has for help.

The guidance needs of youth are primarily in relation to questions of direction, goals, and decision making, in which interested and concerned adults—such as teachers—can perform a special function. The concerns of young people with special implications for guidance cluster around three major questions:

Who Am I?

Erkson² calls this the search for identity: the need a person has for knowing who he is as a unique person, as against all those others. This is made incredibly

TEACHER-COUNSELOR

His evaluation reveals many kinds of achievement: intellectual, social, psychological, aesthetic.

Many individual interviews are held about personal, as well as academic, problems.

Student problems are often discussed with counselors and other teachers.

A number of home visits are made, and special invitations are issued to individual parents to come to school for conferences.

Sensitivity to emotional tone in the classroom and with individual students is maintained.

Changes in class "mood" are noted, and teaching is adjusted accordingly.

more difficult where there are many possibilities as to what one might become: an artist, an athlete, a housewife, a scientist, a farmer, a draftsman, a bricklayer.³

Where Am I Going?

Because there are so many alternatives, many young people are unable to decide who they are and postpone this decision by many devious routes such as going to college, getting married, or dropping out of school. Any of these alternatives may be for some students a way of drifting along with whatever peer pressure seems uppermost at the time, with no clear-cut idea of where this particular road is leading. Only later, often when the decision is irreversible, do they find out that the decision was wrong. Thus the adolescent needs help in knowing the significance of any given decision, and the end toward which that decision may ultimately lead.

What Can I Believe?

Again, as Erikson makes clear, there is "evidence in young lives of the search for something and somebody to be true to [which] can be seen in a variety of pursuits more or less sanctioned by society . . . in all youth's seeming shiftiness, a seeking after some durability in change can be detected . . ."⁴

These general areas of need typically break down into student lists of priorities and teacher lists of priorities. Adolescents want help in:

Personal-social relationships. If asked, most adolescents report that they wish they could change their appearance.

Achievement in school. Students wish they knew how to study better, could get better grades, could get along better with teachers.

Making decisions: Should I take a college prep course? Should I get married before I graduate? What vocation is best for me?

Overcoming worries: about taking tests, about home problems, about the future.

Teacher priorities in secondary education might be listed as:

Helping most students learn the subject matter at hand at a reasonable level.

Keeping young people in school as long as possible.

Helping young people keep out of trouble.

Helping young people make appropriate decisions about their own future.

As can be seen, teacher and student priorities do not "match" very well. Teachers put learning goals first, while students put personal goals first. Inevitably, these differences in priorities will lead at the least to confusion and, at most, to undeclared war.

The teacher-as-counselor is one who realizes that no matter how strongly the

³ Erikson, p. 245.

⁴ Erikson, p. 235.

school may feel about goals of teaching, the student's personal goals and priorities must be considered as of equal worth and merit, or the learning-teaching goals will never be achieved. As one student in an interview said, "You come to ninth grade and they teach you world history. The world is crawling up their legs and they get world history!" This was a student in a school rocked by intergang fights and marked ethnic cleavages. It was clear that few of the ninth-graders would be learning world history. Instead, as another student from the same school perceptively noted, "There should be discussions of problems in freshman classes. Nobody ever talks it [the fights] over with us, and maybe if we talked it out in freshman classes we would not have such trouble."⁵

There are published checklists that the teacher might find helpful in diagnosing the particular needs of his own homeroom classes, or of any class which he is teaching.⁶ The teacher will also find helpful the use of open-ended sentences such as:

- I sometimes wish that I _____
- Other people often think that I _____
- If I had three wishes I would most want: _____
- School is _____
- Most teachers think that I _____
- The best thing about school is _____

Several cautions must be observed in administering any of these tests and in evaluating and utilizing the data. Some schools and communities are very wary of anything that appears to be an "invasion of privacy" on the part of teachers or other school personnel.⁷ Often groups associated with such causes as anti-fluoridation are also opposed to some bogey termed "mental health." If administered in particularly sensitive school areas, diagnostic procedures such as those mentioned above might provoke attack by a few, with claims of brainwashing and Communism, ridiculous as this may seem. The teacher should be sure to consult with counselors or administrative personnel, or both, to assess the local climate before entering what might already be roiled waters. Most schools and school personnel, however, are pleased and indeed welcome this kind of interest on the part of individual teachers. In some systems counselors will assist in selecting the proper diagnostic tools and also in administering and scoring them if necessary.

The data themselves must be viewed with care. Typically, girls report more

⁵ Fannie Shaftef, "Comments on Interviews at El Rancho High School." Stanford University, April 21, 1958 (Unpublished manuscript).

⁶ Robert Fox and others, *Diagnosing Classroom Learning Environments*. Chicago: Science Research Associates, 1966.

⁷ Ramon Ross, "Uproar in Valley City," *The National Elementary Principal*, 48, 1964, 23-26. and Bevis Longstreth, "Behavioral Research Using Students: A Privacy Issue for Schools," *The School Review*, 76, March 1968, 1-22. See also Robert R. Sears, "In Defense of Privacy Response to Longstreth," *The School Review*, 76, March, 1968, 23-33; and Robert Schmuck and Mark Chesler, "Superpatriot Opposition to Community Mental Health Programs," *Community Mental Health Journal*, 3, Winter 1967, 382-388.

fears, anxieties, and less self-esteem than boys. The question (not yet resolved by research) is whether girls are really that much worse off, or just are less afraid to admit that they do not feel personally adequate and competent. After all, American culture says it is all right for a girl to admit feeling weak and fearful, but it is far from the masculine ideal to admit similar concerns.⁸ Thus many boys may mask their true feelings, and some girls may overreport trivial or passing worries. Therefore projective devices such as the open-ended test, in which there are no "right answers" or guided answers (as opposed to a multiple-choice situation, for instance), may thus be a more effective way of getting at the boys' feelings.

Finally, the teacher must remember that these data, like any other data about the personal aspects of a student, are confidential. He uses what he obtains with care and professionalism. The data are not discussed over the gossip-table in the teachers' lounge, or in any place other than the privacy of an office with a competent fellow professional. The teacher also uses care in interpreting any of these data to the student or his parents. It is wiser to gain merely a general picture of a student who appears to have some areas of personal concern and then keep a watchful eye upon him. Later, when the time is propitious, talk privately with the student and let him, if he wishes, discuss his own situation as he sees it. How this is done will be discussed below.

Everyone Was Once an Adolescent

To get some perspective on the problems of the adolescents he encounters, the beginning teacher could well reflect upon his own adolescence. What were the things that bothered him the most? Where did he find help, if any? How did he go about seeking such help, and what did he do when it was proffered?

There is a caution here, of course. What has happened to oneself in one's own lifetime may be unique indeed. The extent to which one can generalize from his own experience to that of the adolescents he teaches is apt to be hazardous. While all have experienced, or are experiencing the process of growing up, the similarity may end there. For example:

Today's adolescent is a product of "total exposure" to television. In most American homes, he has known the medium since birth.

His parental generation is that of the Korean conflict and the Vietnam war; characterized by affluence, violence, and racial disturbances.

He—and she—are apt to know about The Pill and have had some experience with—or heard about—drugs, drinking, and other ventures of this generation often more risky than those of the teacher's generation.

The "Generation Gap," while it may appear to be small (maybe only a mere four years in the case of beginning student teachers), is still there and it increases drastically with every decade.

⁸ Walter Mischel, "A Social-Learning View of Sex Differences in Behavior." In *The Development of Sex Differences*, Eleanor Maccoby (ed.). Stanford: Stanford University Press, 1966, pp. 56-81.

With many older women, and returned servicemen entering secondary-school teaching, the Generation Gap is large enough to cause considerable distress and lack of communication.

The teacher may come from a more restricted, or at least different, environment than his students. Women in general—particularly middle-class girls entering teaching—have rarely had an insider's view of genuine poverty, of family disorganization resulting from extreme deprivation, and do not know the problems faced by blue-collar families, by marginal groups such as the Cuban and Mexican migrants, the American Indian, the displaced miner of Appalachia, or Southern Negro (or white) farm tenant.

A person who has, in his own lifetime, faced some personal traumatic experience or developed strong negative feelings about others, will need to do some personal assessment if the students he teaches remind him of these sensitive areas. One teacher whose father had been an alcoholic and had deserted the family when she was an adolescent had very strong and passionate feelings about drinking, and alcoholics in general. It was hard for her to be objective about such parents when she met them, and she found it difficult not to over-identify with students, particularly girls, who might have a similar problem in their homes. As noted earlier (Chapter 4) feelings about one's religious or ethnic group or about others, can influence the way one perceives the problems, potentials, or limitations of his students. One teacher in a workshop for disadvantaged youth expressed such violent antipathy to Negroes that, when the other participants in the workshop, some of whom were Negro, pinned a sign "Colored" on the men's washroom, he walked up two flights of stairs rather than enter it. The other participants thought it a huge joke; but one can only wonder what might happen to Negro students in this teacher's class.

Another very important way in which secondary teachers, and their own adolescences, differ from those whom they will teach, is that teachers and future teachers have all been successful with school tasks. They have all had adequate intellectual endowment and have found school work (particularly high-school work) relatively easy. This state of affairs will not be true of most of the students they teach. In fact, since half the population is below 100 IQ (which is what that score means), then at least one third or more of the students he teaches will be below 100 IQ. And it takes considerably more than that to do well through college. So the teacher is brighter than many (not all) of his students, and this too will have affected his adolescent experiences. Teachers are more apt to come from homes where parents are also well educated, or prize education; the same will not be true of many of their students. Most teachers will come from intact homes; many of their students will come from homes broken by death, desertion, divorce, delinquency or other forms of social or personal pathology.

Thus, as a counselor of youth, while the teacher has his own personal memories as guides, he must also realize the limitations of such personal experiences in generalizing to others. It is helpful for the teacher to see himself always as a student of youth and of youth culture. As previously noted, one of

the best ways to observe the forces impinging on youth is to listen to the television and the radio programs they like, to read their magazines, and to listen to them. Another way of gaining understanding is to read the literature of adolescence, written by and for adults, which provides glimpses into the inner world of growing up in a way that research studies tend to mask. A selected bibliography of fiction and biography relating to the adolescent experience will be found at the end of Chapter 4.

Gathering Data about Students

The teacher may want to utilize one of the diagnostic tools mentioned earlier; but in addition, a standard procedure for collecting information about students is recommended. It is hard to recall all the data about the 100 or more students a teacher may see every day. It is also important that additional information that may be of help in understanding a particular student be easily recorded and located for quick reference when the need arises.

In a loose-leaf binder or a file drawer not readily accessible to students, the teacher may develop a file on his students. A simple form such as the following could be filled out for each student; data can be provided by counselors, other teachers, the students' cumulative record, and by questioning students themselves as needed:

Name _____ Age _____

Special physical characteristics (that is: too tall, short, fat, etc.):

Father's, mother's, occupations:

Test data: (IQ, Achievement, etc.)

School record:

Hobbies and extracurricular activities:

Special information and comments:

Preparing a Case Study

Prior to student teaching many colleges require a student to make a case study of an adolescent, or this may be undertaken in conjunction with student teaching. And that is the last case study a teacher ever makes. This is unfortunate. The case study, as students often report, is very revealing. The baffling behavior of Bill becomes clear when one realizes he is trying, unsuccessfully, to emulate an older brother who was a star athlete; Lynn's obsession with neatness, cleanliness, and straight margins, reflects the behavior of her mother who is under psychiatric treatment for being exactly the opposite, an excessively untidy, inattentive, unaware person living in a world of her own.

The teacher on the job should discipline himself to make at least two case studies a year. This will not only help him gain insight into students he finds hard to understand or empathize with, but it will also keep him human and humane. Many good guides to gathering case study data exist.⁹

Having gathered such data, the teacher would then reflect upon it and consider what he now knows and how his teaching and his relationship with the student may be modified or adapted in the light of his findings. This kind of preparation is an essential ingredient in the counseling approach to teaching.

Who Should Counsel Whom?

Logically, the question of who should counsel whom might have been one of the first raised in this chapter. Actually, only as teachers begin to face the real problems of their students does this nettlesome query arise: "Am I the one who should consider these problems with this student?" There is no clear-cut answer. In fact, many issues and problems are still unresolved in this area.

Should teachers do any counseling at all? It is almost impossible for good teachers to avoid requests for help, advice, and support in many personal problems. This does not mean that guidance experts, where such are available, might not be able to deal more adequately with many of these problems. Indeed, the growth of professional counseling services in the public schools is an encouraging phenomenon. Such experts have specialized training beyond that of the classroom teacher. Furthermore, since they have time to sit down with the individual student for relaxed, unhurried discussions of his problems, constructive solutions are more likely to emerge. The classroom teacher has such opportunities only as he takes them from his out-of-school time. It is sensible, then, for the beginning teacher to keep always in mind the very real limitations on his ability to do the total counseling job. Where experts are available, they should certainly be used to the fullest. Unfortunately, in most secondary schools, the expert—when he is available at all—has a case load far above his capacity to handle. The great bulk of counseling, if it is to be done, must therefore still be done by the classroom teacher.

Are men teachers generally able to do a better counseling job with boys and women teachers with girls? There are certain sex-linked problems that a boy or a girl would be most reluctant to discuss with an adult of the opposite sex who is a teacher-counselor. A teacher with insight and understanding, however, not only can, but will have to, deal with the personal problems of both boys and girls. Being married often helps a teacher understand the personal problems faced by the opposite sex, which previous experiences have usually blocked out. By and large, boys share few things in the lives of girls, and vice versa. Their

⁹ Good sources are: Mary G. Ligon and Sarah W. McDaniel, *The Teacher's Role in Counseling* (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1970), Chapter 6; Robert L. Gibson and Robert E. Higgins, *Techniques of Guidance: An Approach to Pupil Analysis* (Chicago: Science Research Associates, 1966).

experiences have been limited to those that concern their own sex most deeply, with only a limited and censored view of the other sex. When a woman teacher feels strongly that a boy in trouble would do better to talk with a man teacher or counselor, she should certainly feel free to suggest to a male colleague that the boy needs help.

Should teachers counsel primarily those of their own racial or ethnic group? Where there is any racial or ethnic tension, experience indicates that students, in the main, feel more comfortable and secure with persons they can identify with. The increased number of black counselors on college campuses is the direct response to this need and is paralleled by similar trends in secondary schools. Where there are many Spanish-speaking students there should be a counselor fluent in Spanish who is aware of the particular problems of such students.¹⁰

Should a teacher try to act as a counselor with students whose problem appears to be most acute in his classes? If a teacher observes that Diane is really unpleasant and rude in his class only, then it may be that the root of the trouble is a personality clash between them.

After much trouble with Fred, Mrs. Drake was shocked one day when he suddenly got up; slammed down his books; and stalked out of the room, saying so that all could hear, "I just can't stand this any longer." Later, when Mrs. Drake talked with the principal, she learned that Fred had flung himself into the principal's office, saying he just had to be taken out of her class. The principal, a patient and understanding person, let Fred talk. After much preliminary letting off of steam, during which time the principal did not try to argue with the student or pass any judgments, Fred finally said, "You know, I think it's because Mrs. Drake is so much like my mother, and I'm always in hot water at home. I just hate women teachers." After another half hour or so of talk, Fred had uncovered much of his own problem and had stated a solution of his own: he would like a few days out of class—he would study the assignments and do the work—and then he would return and behave better, since he saw the problem better himself. The principal relayed the substance of the discussion to Mrs. Drake, who was interested and relieved. A later interview and visit with Fred's parents helped to give insight into Fred's situation: a competing sister also made him resent women. The principal told the physical education teacher, who was able to give Fred a job as assistant to the student athletic manager in charge of equipment and shower room. This contact with older men and his own male peers did much to help Fred.

Another case, very similar to this, was reported by a teacher. Here the man teacher had evidently antagonized a girl in his class to such a point that the girl's whole life was being dominated by this one conflict. So critical had this

¹⁰ William O. Amos and Jean D. Grambs (eds.), *Counseling the Disadvantaged Youth*. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1968.

become that the parents finally transferred the girl to another school. Some behavior problems do arise out of this kind of personality clash, and in such cases the aid of another member of the staff may have to be enlisted to gain insight and help.

Finding the Time for Counseling Interviews

The problem of finding time for counseling must still be faced. Many secondary schools gather their students from a wide radius. Students may arrive by bus just a few moments before the bell and leave just after the last bell has rung. In many schools, from one half to two thirds of the student body are immediately excluded from after- or before-school conference time.

Even if the proper time is found, there is another problem. Students may be suspicious and on the defensive when called for a special interview by a teacher. "I must have done something wrong" is the first reaction. This natural suspicion can be allayed by rather simple devices. First, the teacher can announce early in his acquaintance with the class that he hopes, before the first month is over, to have an individual conference with each student, and for that reason wants them to fill out a form, such as the following one:

Name _____

Class schedule:	Period	Teacher	Room
-----------------	--------	---------	------

1.

2.

3.

.

.

.

Which of the following times would be best for you if we could schedule a conference at that time?

1. Before school

2. Lunch hour

3. Study hall (Hour Room)

A scheduled conference with every class member beyond the regular school day would, of course, require many more hours than any teacher would have. Two alternatives are suggested:

1. Make an assignment early in the semester that requires library research. Arrange for two thirds of the class to go at one time, and use the class period to interview the other third.
2. Have the class work in groups during the class hour on projects that will not necessitate every member's contributing, and then call individual students to one's desk for conferences.

Finding the Place for Counseling Interviews

Mr. Phillips has his desk at an angle in the corner; on the left, toward the class, he has a three-drawer file. This file gives the desk corner a sort of cozy air; he even has an ivy plant growing luxuriantly on top. There are no student desks directly in line with this file, since the desk has been placed so far in the corner. However, any student talking to him has to sit behind the file drawer, almost hidden from view by his classmates and with his back toward them. Mr. Phillips can then look over the student's head toward the rest of the class and yet not detract from the kind of semiprivate atmosphere that this desk and file arrangement has created.

By placing his desk at the back of the room, the teacher can help the student feel that he is not being watched or listened to by his classmates. Arranging the seats in the class to leave a wide aisle around the desk helps. The teacher, of course, must be careful to talk in low tones directly to the student, so that only the student can hear him.

The Interview: Getting Acquainted

The get-acquainted interview, as described and recommended here, should be simple and exploratory in nature. It is aimed at establishing rapport, indicating the interest of the teacher in the student, and gaining some insight into the student as a person. The kinds of questions that might be asked are:

1. Well, John, is history one of your favorite subjects? What are your favorite subjects? Which ones do you do best in? Do you know why you do better in them than in others?
2. What hobbies do you have?
3. Do you work after school? Have any home chores?
4. What do you like best about school? Are you in any of the clubs, teams, or other groups?
5. What do you want to do after you graduate? What does your family think you should do? (This question leads to questions about family or guardians if the student is not living with his family. The teacher should be careful not to probe; if the student is resistant, then it is wisest to go on to the next question.)
6. Have you had any problems so far in the work that we have done in this class?

A well-structured interview such as the one above, in which certain questions are asked in a certain order, will help, first, to establish rapport and, second, to lead naturally into areas of significance for the teacher. It naturally ends on an impersonal note, so that the student feels that he has not told too much about himself.

The Interview: Meeting Personal Adjustment Problems of Students

The teacher who finds a student who is unable or unwilling to adjust to the school pattern will feel called upon to talk with the student. However, a student who is difficult in class may be a very amiable individual in a private interview, and a student who is a model of deportment in the classroom may be a closed clam in a face-to-face situation.

While the individual interview is essential in most cases in order to gain some understanding of a student whose classroom behavior is causing difficulty, one cannot expect in-class miracles to occur just because John talked so freely in a private conversation; John may still be unable to resist the blandishments of his peers who reward his clowning or belligerence in class.

A further special word of caution, too, must be entered: counselors with long experience with young people from disadvantaged areas find that many of these students, particularly boys, will not respond to an individual interview. Such young people are often not used to individual attention, are threatened by it, do not feel comfortable with an adult in an authority position, and often lack the "language" of the middle-class interview situation.¹¹ For these reasons teachers in inner-city schools sometimes feel extremely frustrated: "I just can't seem to reach them," is the complaint. "They will say 'Yes, ma'am' and I know they don't mean it, but what do they mean? What do they think?" In such instances, the teacher would be wiser to have two or three of "the gang" come in together to talk things over. The boys will reinforce one another, and if one is inarticulate the others may be able to speak for him.

With all students, of course, the establishment of trust and confidence is a primary prerequisite to any kind of counseling relationship. One certainly is unlikely to talk about one's problems to an enemy, or to someone he feels will immediately spread the word to other adults or to authorities. Teachers must make clear and unequivocal their ability to accept a confidential statement as being just that. This does not mean the teacher will not go further for help.

The teacher may find that the problem is really rooted in an impossible family relationship, in a physical growth problem, in a neighborhood gang—problems the teacher may not be able to deal with at all. In such a case, what should the teacher do? Obviously, call on those agencies and facilities that can deal with such problems. The important point here is that the teacher should not put all his trust in an interview or series of interviews. Although a useful tool when skillfully utilized, the interview obviously will not solve all the problems of students.

Another caution for the teacher: in an interview one may find an individual student only too willing to agree with any opinion expressed by the teacher, promising all kinds of changes in behavior—and nothing happens at all. Again, some students have become so accustomed to giving back to the teacher what he wants, that they will do so in almost any circumstance.

¹¹ Amos and Grambs, pp. 156-159.

Why Interviews Fail

The interview intended primarily to coerce is bound to fail as an effective counseling instrument. If the teacher is going to "tell the student just what he had better do," the atmosphere will be far from conducive to a real understanding of why the student caused the trouble. In order, therefore, for counseling to work, the teacher might very well wait until several days have elapsed after a problem incident has occurred, and then call the student in at a time and place convenient for uninterrupted conversation. By this time both student and teacher have re-evaluated their own roles in the problem. If the teacher has used the time wisely, he has checked office records about the individual student thoroughly in order to see whether any light can be thrown on the specific difficulty. Perhaps the most unwise thing a teacher can say, after a student has been particularly difficult and after many warnings, is: "Well, John, you had better stay after school this evening; it seems that you and I should have a little talk." Such "little talks" are usually unpleasant, acrimonious, and lead to increased student-teacher hostility. A better approach might be the following:

Barbara has consistently "forgotten" her assignments. Whenever any home-work is due, she does not turn it in on time and often fails to turn it in at all if no class time is provided for her to do it. Because she has not done the work, she is not informed about the topics the class discusses. She is therefore bored, and in her boredom she constantly tries to distract the attention of her nearest classmates by chattering, sending notes, turning around in her seat. Miss Cohen has tried to help her and has often had to reprimand her for interrupting. One such incident occurred on Wednesday. Barbara was acting worse than usual; and Miss Cohen, in desperation, asked her to go to the library and complete the last three assignments. For the next several days, Barbara behaved well in class, but still has failed to turn in her work.

On the following Monday, Miss Cohen says: "Barbara, I noticed that you have study period right after lunch, when I have my free period. Could you meet me here so that we could go over some of these long-lost assignments?"

Barbara acquiesces; the problem that she faces has not been ignored—the teacher could not pretend that she just wanted to have a "little talk" with Barbara, because they are both aware of the area of trouble. But Miss Cohen has been very careful not to call Barbara in for a conference until the situation between them is as calm and pleasant as possible.

Counseling in Action: Some Typical Interviews

What does the teacher do in an interview with a student? There are two schools of thought: one approach is for the counselor to tell the student quickly how he understands the student's problem, outline what he considers it to be, and give direct instruction about what to do. This kind of directive counseling has an advantage because little time is needed. Furthermore, the student is not uncertain about what is known about him and what is expected of

him. However, the method has definite limitations, some of which will be discussed below. The other approach, the *nondirective*, is more subtle. Here the teacher merely expresses to the student a feeling that perhaps the student has a problem. The student is encouraged through interest and relative silence on the part of the teacher to talk about the problem. The teacher gives no judgment regarding what the student says, merely reflects back to the student whatever feeling tone is manifest. This is intended to allow the student to recognize his problem himself and propose his own solution. This type of interviewing will be developed below.

In the following pages are illustrative interview excerpts, showing good and poor techniques in counseling students. These are given in detail, with analytic commentaries, because the interview is central to all counseling. Skill in interviewing must be learned as one learns any other of the skills that contribute to effective teaching.

The descriptions that follow contrast various types of interviewing approaches and indicate throughout the nondirective, client-centered approach to the same problem. The kinds of interviewer attitudes illustrated, which do not result in better student adjustment are:

1. The Disciplinarian
2. The Judge
3. The Moralist
4. The Wishful Thinker
5. The Helper
6. The Prober

In reading these descriptions, it is important to note those words and phrases that contribute to rapport and those that interfere with it; those phrases that indicate genuine interest in helping the student understand and solve his own problem; and those that make him feel helpless and at fault.¹²

1. The Disciplinarian

TEACHER: I don't think you have been working as we expect students to work in this class.

STUDENT: I don't know what you mean.

TEACHER: You know very well what I mean; look, here is my rollbook. Let me see: no report for last Friday; last Wednesday, the exam—you were absent that day and didn't make it up. You realize this behavior is not acceptable.

The student is being put on the spot. The teacher is trying to get the student in a corner, with all the advantage on the side of the teacher. If and when the teacher ever gets around to discovering why this series of events occurred, the

¹² Adapted from Dugald S. Arbuckle, *Teacher Counseling*. Reading, Mass.: Addison-Wesley Publishing Company, Inc., 1950, pp. 52-68.

student will be upset, angry, resentful. Punishment is usually the only outcome of this approach.

Teacher-Counselor

TEACHER: I asked you to stay after school for a few minutes because of your work recently.

STUDENT: I know, I haven't done any, have I? (defiant)

TEACHER: You know what the problem is . . .

STUDENT: Yeah, I never get my work in. I don't like to do it, it . . .

TEACHER: I see . . .

Here the teacher makes the preamble as short as possible; speaks mildly and unemotionally; does not try to interrupt the student, but rather encourages the student to talk about the problem that is of first concern. Later, some other aspects of this problem will appear; but the teacher lets the student tell what he will in his own fashion, following his own pattern.

2. The Judge

STUDENT: I just can't do geometry.

TEACHER: The real trouble is that you waste all your time.

STUDENT: I really try.

TEACHER: You might try, but you don't concentrate when you do. I bet you have the radio on all the time. This isn't a good way to study.

STUDENT: But I . . .

TEACHER: Now, no buts . . .

No sympathy is expressed. The teacher indicates that he knows much better than the student what the trouble is. There is condemnation without inquiry, without listening to what the student has to say. The student feels on trial; he is always on the defensive with such a teacher; his answers are typically started with "But I . . .," and he rarely has a chance to finish them. The teacher creates the impression that he is all-knowing, the expert, the "superfather."

Teacher-Counselor

STUDENT: I just can't do geometry.

TEACHER: You feel you just can't do geometry . . .

STUDENT: I don't know. Sometimes I think I'm just dumb. My mother tells me I'm dumb all the time. I bet she's right.

TEACHER: Your mother tells you you are dumb . . .

STUDENT: Yeah . . . but I don't think I am. Anyway, I'm not dumb like old Fatso Grooby—now he's a real stupe. Why, do you know . . .

The teacher reflected back the student's feeling. Often this is done in the identical words the student uses, but the inflection indicates no judgment, no

feeling on the part of the teacher, merely interest, perhaps slight solicitude. Often, a slightly higher pitch, a slight questioning tone, is an assistance in such an interview situation. Here the student responds well; he is beginning to reveal his feelings about himself, his capacities, his reactions to others. Soon the teacher will have built up a great deal of insight into the problem.

3. *The Moralist*

STUDENT: What do you think I should do?

TEACHER: Well, you are the one who really has to make the decision. You have to be able to face these things and decide for yourself. Later in life no one is going to make decisions for you.

STUDENT: Well, I wish you would help me.

TEACHER: As I said, you must make your own decisions. Now I think the best thing to do is drop the geometry and take study hall this semester, and then take typing next year.

The Moralist cannot resist telling the student how to behave in life. He is ready with aphorisms and value judgments for every occasion. He is so full of moral wisdom that no student would willingly come to him with a confession of antisocial behavior in order to get help. This teacher would merely make the student's guilt worse without helping him out of his dilemma. The Moralist must give advice because he knows he is right.

Teacher-Counselor

STUDENT: What do you think I should do?

TEACHER: You feel that you need help in deciding . . .

STUDENT: Yeah, I am sort of uncertain myself, and anyway . . .

TEACHER: I see your problem . . .

STUDENT: Now, I could change majors, couldn't I? But my folks would have a fit. I don't know—if I fail geometry it might even be worse. Is it possible to drop a course?

TEACHER: Yes.

STUDENT: Now maybe if I do that, by next year I can convince Dad I just can't go to college . . . I just hate the idea of going to college; we fight about it at home all the time. Dad is so stubborn sometimes; sometimes I think if someone from school could tell him what I can do . . .

Notice how the teacher made no judgment at all about what the student said. He recognized the student's feeling of uncertainty; and yet underneath it the student was able to see possible alternatives. Even more important, an insight has been gained into the real dynamics of the student's problem; it rests with the father in part. An opening has been given for the school to work directly with the parent in solving the student's problem.

4. *The Wishful Thinker*

STUDENT: I get so worried about not doing well.

TEACHER: Now let's not worry about such things; I'm sure everything will turn out all right.

STUDENT: I just feel so blue sometimes and there are so many problems.

TEACHER: Now, now, everything will be all right; we can't let ourselves worry about everything, you know; that just makes it worse.

The constant optimist, the Wishful-Thinker type, does not want to admit that things are bad, or cruel, or hopeless, or difficult: "Let's all look at the sunny side." Sometimes this type is the jovial back-slapping, booster kind of person. From him no real counsel is available because he is so aggressively cheery. He sounds patronizing, and usually is. After several such cheery interviews, the student will quickly close up and evade the teacher: "If I feel blue, I don't want someone to tell me I don't or shouldn't."

Teacher-Counselor

STUDENT: I get so worried about not doing well.

TEACHER: You are worried about your own success . . .

STUDENT: Well, yes and no. I don't think it is all my fault. It's these darned depressions I get into. I just want to cry and cry.

TEACHER: You feel like crying . . .

STUDENT: (Voice shakes) And I do, and I know I'm a big sissy; there isn't anything wrong. (Student cries.)

TEACHER: (Hands her a tissue box) You feel ashamed because you cry for no good reason.

STUDENT: (Takes tissue, blows nose) Yeah . . . Do you think everyone feels this way?

TEACHER: You feel different from other boys and girls.

Again, note the way the teacher resists the impulse to sympathize or reprimand. One of the real possibilities of this kind of counseling, however, is that students will cry, will get emotional, because this sort of counseling recognizes the real emotions of individuals. The teacher develops skill in meeting these situations, not by getting alarmed or being sympathetic and saying, "Now, now, Louise, there isn't anything to cry about," but by merely recognizing that the student has a real trouble, handing her a tissue, and bringing the conversation back to the problem.

5. *The Helper*

TEACHER: Now, you just tell me what is bothering you, and I bet I can help you out.

STUDENT: Oh, I don't think anyone can help me . . .

TEACHER: Now you know we teachers are very happy to do anything we can.

STUDENT: Well, it's that science class. I don't get along with Mr. Dipple. Would you get me changed?

TEACHER: Well, now . . .

The Helper wants to shoulder everyone's burdens; and, as in this case, if the offer of help is taken seriously, the teacher may be in a very difficult position. Often the teacher really can do nothing. The student learns to distrust the offers of help and to suspect that teachers don't mean what they say. Moreover, offering to help out leaves the student just as dependent as ever. Teachers need to help young people solve their own problems, not to solve the problems for them.

Teacher-Counselor

TEACHER: You want me to help you, Jane?

STUDENT: Well, not exactly. I wish I could get out of this mess myself . . .

TEACHER: You feel you are in a mess . . .

STUDENT: (Bursts out) I just hate Mr. Dipple, and I know he hates me.

TEACHER: I see . . .

STUDENT: He is pretty nice to me, and all that, but those worms and things just give me the creeps.

TEACHER: You feel Mr. Dipple is really all right.

STUDENT: Oh, he's okay, I guess. But I get upset every time I see a worm. Do you think he'd let me off if I explained how they made me feel?

Here the teacher does not offer help, but indicates a recognition of the student's need; and, as actually can be seen, the student doesn't want help but clarification. By the end of the conversation, the student has pinned down the problem to her own feelings; has even outlined a possible action.

6. The Prober

TEACHER: Tell me, Agnes, are you sure you are happy at home?

STUDENT: Well, okay, I guess.

TEACHER: Now be honest; do you get along well with your parents?

STUDENT: Oh, I don't know.

TEACHER: Now we can't get anywhere unless you tell me about yourself. Have you always been moody?

STUDENT: No, just recently, and that is why I guess I seem to mope about in class.

TEACHER: Well, now we are getting someplace. You must have some worries you aren't telling me about.

There is great temptation on the part of some teachers to pry personal information out of students. But students, like anyone else, protect their personal

lives. This should be respected. The direct attack, as noted here, brings out resistance; this girl is not going to tell anyone anything. The teacher pounces on each new bit of information; even accuses the student of being bad because information is withheld. No information that the student is not freely willing to give should be deliberately sought.

Teacher-Counselor

TEACHER: Agnes, I have noticed you have been sort of daydreaming in class . . .

STUDENT: Yes, I guess I have.

TEACHER: Do you want to tell me about it?

STUDENT: Gosh, what is there to tell?

TEACHER: You feel the daydreaming is your own problem.

STUDENT: Heck, it doesn't bother anyone else.

TEACHER: (Just nods thoughtfully)

STUDENT: (Long silence) No one ever noticed before.

TEACHER: I see . . .

STUDENT: (Long silence) There are so many things on my mind. . . . (Bursts out) You know, my parents are going to get a divorce.

TEACHER: You think about your home problem in class . . .

Another pattern of counseling can be seen here: the student does not want to talk, but the teacher feels an important problem is present. The teacher allows the student to remain silent, but indicates interest and no impatience. The feeling conveyed by the teacher is that the student doesn't have to talk at all if she doesn't want to, but here is someone interested in her. It is interesting to note that the student shows some surprise that anyone did notice the behavior. And underlying the symptom is the real cause, which the probing teacher above will never uncover.

Other Counseling Errors

There are other ways, in addition to those just discussed, in which teachers betray the counseling function. There is the teacher who is always in a great hurry; if he talks to a student, he fiddles nervously with a pencil, jumps up, looks at his watch, talks briskly, and tries to rush the student. The student soon knows that this teacher is only pretending interest, and really feels he has far more important things to do than talk with a student.

It is a serious error to forget the purpose of calling a student in. George appears after school, and Miss Drew looks up, startled, and says, "Did you want something, George?" He replies, "Gosh, didn't you tell me to come in to see you?"

What a dash of cold water this is, when the student felt that at last he could obtain a real hearing for his difficulty! Sometimes the teacher finds students coming to him for help of their own volition. To express surprise, resentment,

or displeasure at this show of student initiative will kill it in the bud. If the teacher is genuinely busy and cannot talk with the student, a simple statement should be made: "I'll be happy to talk to you, Sam, but I won't have the time this afternoon. Let's set a date when we can get together." And an appointment is made then and there, so that the teacher preserves the student initiative for their later interview.

The Nondirective Approach

In the situations described earlier, the kind of interviewing by the teacher-counselor that was recorded was nondirective. The teacher encouraged the student to talk as he wished, without attempting to force him into any preconceived mold or to impose his own ideas and wishes upon him.

Many counselors do not utilize nondirective techniques because they have different purposes for the guidance interview, seek different outcomes, and hold a different philosophy of guidance. It is suggested here, however, that the classroom teacher probably functions best as a counselor when using the nondirective approach. Of course, no one method will fit all individuals.

The nondirective approach is contrary to much in one's own experience. We live in a world in which there are rules for almost everything; people are always being told what to do and what not to do. It takes a conscious effort of will when one is in a position of authority not to proceed to tell others what to do. Giving orders is a very neat and precise way of producing conformist, obedient, automatons who, when actually faced with major decisions to make on their own, either have to run home to Mother for help or blindly make any decision to evade a dilemma—sometimes a tragically wrong decision.

Therefore, despite the temptation to be "tellers" and to give advice and to "lay down the law," teachers, to be consistent with the concept of producing more democratically oriented individuals, must necessarily make determined efforts to be nondirective in their guidance and counseling efforts.

Again, however, it must be noted that young people who have grown up in harsh and punitive environments where behavior and the motives for action have rarely, if ever, been explored, will find the nondirective approach disorienting. They just won't know how to act or react. Teachers may have to learn ways of being flexible to meet the differing personality and environmental patterns of youth. And just as the nondirective method may produce more lasting and significant self-direction on the part of many adolescents, it can be a flop or deterrent for others.

Learning to be nondirective takes time and effort. Beginning teachers need practice and help in developing this special skill up to the point where they feel comfortable in the listening role, are sensitive to underlying emotional content, and are able to suspend the judgmental and authoritarian responses that they are accustomed to.

The Specialist: The Ally of the Teacher

This chapter has stressed the role of the teacher in the counseling process and has shown why it is that the counseling burden must inevitably fall on the classroom teacher. It is, however, highly important that the teacher realize his own limitations in working with individuals and know who is available in his immediate school or in the larger community to assist students. If he is in a secondary school with an enrollment of 750 or more students, he may find a full-time counselor on the staff. In schools of smaller enrollment, he may find part-time counselors or none at all. Where there are full-time counselors, the guidance office can provide the teacher with much helpful information about his students and can be utilized for referral of difficult cases. The teacher will want to investigate the total guidance program in his school in order to know exactly what kinds of help are provided, since these vary considerably from school to school.

Furthermore, the teacher will want to familiarize himself with the resources and personnel of the following specialized agencies of school and community.

Welfare and attendance personnel. The attendance office is typically concerned with truancy, dropouts, and the special problems of youngsters that may prevent their regular school attendance.

School social workers. These may also be called pupil personnel workers, home and school visitors, or visiting teachers. The school social worker has the responsibility of linking school and community services, obtaining the help of community agencies where needed, gathering home data for school use, and, in some cases, doing tutorial teaching at home for convalescent students.

Child guidance clinics. Here the teacher will usually find a team composed of a psychiatrist, two or more psychologists, several specially trained social workers, psychometrists, and other special personnel in the field of counseling.

Family agencies and other social agencies. In most medium-sized and all large communities there is an intricate network of social agencies dealing with many facets of family and child needs. Among these are: foster home placement bureaus, detention homes, family service agencies, county welfare departments, welfare agencies organized by local church groups, and the Salvation Army Homes for unwed mothers.

Special classes and schools. There are both public and private agencies especially organized to care for the needs of individuals handicapped by physical or emotional problems. Where these are, who can be admitted, and what services are provided should be known by the teacher, who can then pass this information on to those who may need it.

Special poverty programs. During the late 1960s the federal government, local and state agencies, and many private foundations supported a large number of programs aimed directly at ameliorating the worst of the impact of poverty. Many programs lasted for a summer or a year and then vanished. Others have some durability, particularly federally financed ones, but depend on vicissitudes

in Congress and priorities in the minds of the public. Such programs as the Neighborhood Youth Corps and Job Corps were especially designed to help the young person who has dropped out of high school or who would drop out without some special assistance. Upward Bound is another program designed to reach poor youth who have potential for higher education that is being untapped by standard educational practices. Many young people who could be served are not because responsible adults are unaware of the existence of such new programs. In the foreseeable future it is probable that intensified efforts will be made to provide these kinds of specialized programs to reach even more young people from disadvantaged areas, since the social cost of redemption at this age is far less than the ultimate social cost of ignoring or overlooking such youth.

Group Guidance

The more formal setting for group guidance in many high schools is the "homeroom." This administrative device allows one teacher to take major responsibility for a group of 30 to 35 students. The teacher may meet with the group once a day for 20 to 30 minutes, or several times during the week for an hour. During this homeroom period, the teacher is expected to carry out various routines in connection with arranging schedules, to check attendance and absence, to discuss student government and election procedures. In addition, the homeroom may be designated as the guidance period, during which the teacher is encouraged to discuss with students the kinds of personal and group concerns which are not covered by standard curricular offerings. It is a place where the teacher seeks to understand better the personal life and problems of each individual.

The kind of classroom atmosphere in which group guidance takes place most effectively is similar to that of the democratic classroom (see Chapter 3). However, certain of its characteristics need further amplification here. To carry on adequate group guidance, the teacher must have a greater-than-average ability to create a permissive atmosphere; that is, an atmosphere in which the teacher actively accepts the way students feel, think, and behave without censure or judgment or disapproval.

The class was discussing the assignment for the next day. Sidney burst out with: "Aw, I think the old windbag who wrote this book must have been a dope." The teacher, instead of chiding him for such an attitude, said instead, "You feel this book isn't very interesting." Susan chimed in: "It is so dull, Miss Andrews." Other students entered the discussion, many expressing similar opinions, with Miss Andrews merely nodding, listening, helping those talk who felt they wanted to, until the class had exhausted its comments about the book and the assignment. The group then rather cheerfully went back to the original assignment and carried on a lively and friendly discussion about the major ideas to be sought in the next chapter. The teacher had used the occasion of Sidney's remark to let the students get rid of some of their resentment without

scolding for holding undesirable attitudes; as a result, the class was much better able to continue with the expected work.

The principles for leading such a discussion with a group are similar to those for individual nondirective counseling.

1. The leader's comments are basically reflections and clarifications of the expressed feelings of the speaker, or comments indicating an understanding and acceptance of the feeling.
2. If a student does not wish to speak, he is not pressed to join the conversation.
3. If the conversation lags, the teacher does not direct the thinking of the students in the "right" channels.
4. The leader at no time criticizes, moralizes, or acts as judge.
5. The atmosphere is permissive, so that each student may say as much, or as little, as he wants.
6. The leader does not answer questions. Instead, he may reflect the confusion of the student who is asking the question or make other comments that are equally effective.¹³

A permissive attitude is essential in any situation in which the teacher wants to create the feeling that the students can really decide things for themselves. The teacher-sponsor of the school club, for example, is an adult who gives help and advice when these are requested. Essentially, the club should provide a framework within which the students learn independence and have a chance to develop skill in exercising judgment. The teacher must be able to be neutral, to let the young people talk as they wish about subjects that seem significant to them at the moment. Unless he can do this, the club situation, like any other adult-dominated situation, will not enable students to learn responsibility.

There is danger of overdoing permissiveness, of course: In the hands of an unskilled person, the permissive atmosphere may easily degenerate into chaos. What is emphasized in group guidance or club activity is a greater responsibility on the part of the student for his own learning and a greater recognition of the emotional aspects of the learning process.

Group guidance in the classroom may evolve through classroom discussion. Role-playing (see Chapter 10) is another technique that is particularly valuable for presenting and analyzing many of the kinds of problems which are apt to emerge when there are implicit guidance goals for teaching. For group guidance purposes teen-agers may select their own topics to explore by way of role-playing. Parent-adolescent relationships regarding use of money, choice of friends, kinds of clothes to wear, and other typical parental regulations that create family havoc are fruitful focal points of role-playing enactments.

Other types of problems, such as early marriage, leaving school before graduation, racial or ethnic hostility, can be explored through role playing situations.

¹³ Arbuckle, p. 159.

Open-ended stories by the Shaftels, and the examples of open-ended stories and scripts in Grambs¹⁴ should prove stimulating for teacher use, adaptation, and development.

Academic and Vocational Guidance

Adolescence is a time of great decisions. "Shall I go to college?" "What courses do I need to become an airplane mechanic?" "How can I best prepare for marriage and parenthood?" These are the vital and recurrent questions adolescents are asking themselves throughout the secondary-school years. And here is the teacher to whom students come with these immensely important questions; how can he best help his students to answer them? Guidance involves not only helping a student gain insight into his personal problems, not only aiding him to adjust adequately to a group of his peers—it also means helping him to make choices among a variety of avenues leading to responsible adulthood.

The purpose of any guidance procedure is to aid the individual in making his own most mature choices in the light of the best evidence that can be gathered and in terms of his own goals and purposes. For example, to help a student overcome the handicaps of an emotionally disturbed home and to help that student choose between a commercial or a precollege curriculum may not appear to be similar problems, yet the teacher will find the same skills, understandings, and insights necessary.

Teachers have no right, then, to be mechanical and arbitrary in helping students choose courses or to generalize vaguely when discussing careers. These considerations are crucial to the student, and wrong choices or decisions can be just as tragic and irrevocable as any other personal decision. The availability of a mass of descriptive material—college catalogs that list required high-school courses for entrance, school program outlines, career bulletins—does not mean that the student needs no help beyond placing a pamphlet in his hands.

Academic Guidance

The importance of academic guidance should not be underestimated. Encouraging a student to sign up for a college-preparatory course or insisting that a boy take beginning machine shop instead of French may set the pattern of his life.

Studies indicate that students from higher socioeconomic levels and students whose parents have advanced education make up a very high percentage of those enrolled in college-preparatory courses; whereas students from lower social groups, students from minority cultural groups, and students whose parents

¹⁴ Fannie Shaftel and George Shaftel, *Role-playing for Social Values*. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1967; Jean Dresden Grambs, *Intergroup Education: Methods and Materials*. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice Hall, Inc., 1968.

have had a meager education tend, by and large, to take the commercial, general, home economics, shop, and agricultural courses.¹⁵ Is this a recognition of their ability, or is it a response to cultural pressure? Very often it is true that educated parents understand and pass on to their children a desire for education, while parents with little education themselves may not prize schooling for their children in the same way or are unable to help their children make competent educational decisions.

Vocational Guidance

In an earlier era, the high-school program was considered to be all the education needed for many jobs. Specific programs, such as those in industrial arts and agriculture, were established to serve the needs of students entering such work areas. However, the needs of industry have become so much more elaborate and complex that only a minor job of orientation is now possible in the average industrial arts program. The boy can obtain a good idea of the complexity of many machines, of the simple safety rules, and of some of the skills of working with electrical, welding, and other shop equipment. But for a specific job, most industries today plan on-the-job training of new employees. Secondary schools now serve best by developing an attitude toward work responsibility; an understanding of the role of the worker in society; a familiarity with work routines and work situations; and, finally, by providing an appraisal of the student's own aptitude for a particular kind of work.

It is possible for any teacher to help students see the job applications of the work in his course. This does not mean that only concepts that have a specific job application should be taught; but wherever an application is relevant, it should be made.

As a way of motivating students to work on algebra, apparently unrelated to their plans for the future, Mr. Jordan first asked the students to indicate their probable vocational goals. He found that members of the class expected to enter the usual occupations. A number were going into farming. Many were expecting to enter the skilled trades, such as machine shop and carpentry. Most of the girls were clearly interested in future homemaking. He set up ten groups in the class according to broad occupational categories and then asked each group to interview two or three representatives of that category to see what mathematics they needed in their work.

The reports from the groups were very interesting. Most of the students had no idea that so much mathematics was needed in everyday life.

Another approach to vocational guidance in the academic classroom is exemplified by the following:

¹⁵ Aaron V. Cicourel and John I. Kitsuse, *The Educational Decision-Makers*. Indianapolis: The Bobbs-Merrill Company, Inc., 1963.

One bulletin board in the chemistry laboratory was called "Careers for You in Chemistry." Here Mrs. Grant posted articles about chemists that she found from time to time in *Life*, in the *Saturday Evening Post*, in *Fortune*, in *Science*, in the *Reader's Digest*. She had the current report from the government on opportunities for girls in science. There seemed to be a constant stream of articles that illustrated possible kinds of work for a student interested in chemistry and related fields. At least once a semester she would bring in several individuals who used chemical processes in their occupations to talk to the class about the training needed. One was a laboratory technician from a nearby oil refinery. Another was the chemist from the city water department. A third usually was the soil analyst from the state agricultural college, who did extensive traveling around the state. Following this presentation, she would encourage several students to see how many jobs they could discover in which a knowledge of chemistry was important. These activities provided the basis for a discussion about vocations and vocational choices. A number of Mrs. Grant's students found a life-long interest in careers with a chemistry component because of this introduction.

The opportunity of using every subject field to introduce to the students some vocational possibilities implicit in that area should be fully exploited.

Today, the teacher may often have to help young people make a decision about military service. Defense needs of our country will undoubtedly change; but whatever the direction of the change, adolescents will be those whose lives are most immediately affected. Teachers should be informed about the most recent military service programs and guide young people to the best sources for further help.

Guidance through Work Experience

To help young people going out to work, a number of schools have developed work-experience programs. The whole field of Distributive Education is based on a work plus study approach. This type of program has been used primarily to provide a minimum of schooling for students who must work. The young student does not entirely miss high school because of economic necessity. However, some thought should be given to the value of work experience for all youth, whether or not financial assistance is needed. One of the chief complaints about the adolescent who seeks a job today is that he lacks a sense of responsibility and fails to recognize the real demands of the working world. Work experience could become a vital learning opportunity for many young people at the junior- or senior-high-school level. It must be coordinated with the curriculum as part of learning about the world of work, about the reality of one's interest in a job (a girl who likes nursing on a sentimental level may find the reality of the nurse's job not at all appealing), about one's ability to learn what will be needed on the job.¹⁶

¹⁶ Donald N. Michael, *The Next Generation*. New York: Vintage Books, 1965. See Chapter 10, "Work," pp. 117-141.

Working with Parents

In many schools, only the parents of children who are in trouble are well known by the principal, counselors, and teachers. The few parents who are leaders in the PTA are recognized by the teachers; but most parents are vague and unknown quantities. Perhaps on Open House Night, or during American Education Week, the teacher will meet several parents of students in his classes, chat with them for a few brief moments about what a nice boy Johnny is—and that is the end of the teacher-parent contact for another year. Even on these occasions, the parents the secondary-school teacher sees are often parents of children who are in serious trouble, parents who are active in PTA and community groups, and parents of the superior children in the school.

Normally, the teacher will not see parents whose children are of low ability, parents who are on the fringe of community social life, parents from minority groups, or parents from the lower socioeconomic levels.

The desire of the secondary-school student himself very often is to keep his parents as far away from the school as possible. This is understandable. The adolescent is going through the process of becoming independent of his family, and one part of his life which is truly his own is his school life. Here he is beyond his parents' surveillance. He reports back to them only what he wishes to tell them or what someone else will tell them if he doesn't. So the parents get a highly edited version of the school life of the adolescent.

Undoubtedly, the wishes and needs of the adolescent have acted to reduce the emphasis of the secondary school on teacher-parent contacts. But is the paucity of contact that now exists justified? Would students in the long run grow up better and learn more if parents had a closer contact with the school? Much of the adolescent-parent conflict arises from a lack of understanding of each other's worlds. The school has an obligation to aid the parent, who is still a powerful influence in the life of the adolescent, to gain greater insight into the adolescent's problems, as well as to help the adolescent understand better the world of the parents.¹⁷

It must be admitted that, by and large, the secondary-school teacher has difficulty in talking with parents. Teacher training does not always provide adequate orientation to the personal-social problems of adults in our society. Some of the problems that parents of adolescents face are:

1. The adolescent is strongly challenging the authority of the parents.
2. The adolescent is highly critical of his parents.
3. The parents may be entering middle age, and their own feelings about themselves may be going through a period of readjustment; they are no longer so physically attractive as before; there is a loss of vitality; and, perhaps most important, they recognize a limit to their personal ambitions in terms of job, money, or prestige.

¹⁷ Jane Donner, "Experience with Multi-family, Time Limited, Outpatient Groups at a Community Psychiatric Clinic," *Psychiatry*, 31, May 1968, 126-137.

4. The mothers in particular may feel less needed; the children are growing up and can take care of themselves; soon they will be out of the home. Housework has lost some meaning and actually becomes less time-consuming.
5. The parents are fearful of the heterosexual needs of their children; they are particularly anxious that they don't "go bad." The possibility of marriage seems imminent, and many parents feel insecure in the advice and help they have provided their children.
6. Selection of life goals on the part of adolescents is a pressing problem; the conflict between parent and child about vocational choice becomes crucial for many.
7. Parents may feel that they have not done as good a job as they should have in raising their children. As parents, they may be highly self-critical and have few feelings of success. Our culture provides so many possible courses of action for the parent that, if one choice is made, there may be the constant feeling that perhaps another might have been better.

Whenever the teacher talks with a parent, then, he should keep in mind the particular sociological and personal situation that surrounds the parent of today's adolescent. He is so much more than "just a parent." He is a person who is going through an important period in his own life, which will color his relationship with his child and will also affect the attitudes he takes toward all the other people he meets.

There are a number of basic difficulties in communication between parents and teachers; some of them are:

1. Teachers may not understand problems and situations faced by the parent, as noted above.
2. Parents are more deeply involved emotionally with the child than the teacher, who can afford to be more matter-of-fact and objective; they speak a different language when discussing the child.
3. Parents may approach teachers with stock attitudes; some of these are:
 - a. "Teachers are superior and I am inferior; the teacher should tell me what to do."
 - b. "Teachers are peculiar people who have never really lived; I don't think they can tell me much about my child."
 - c. "Anyone can teach; teaching is merely drilling the child with facts."
 - d. "Teachers always made me suffer; I am really afraid of teachers."
 - e. "Teachers, especially high-school teachers, are something special; I can't talk to them freely."

Both parents and teachers may be unsure of their values; for example, "Do we or do we not want children of different races to meet socially?" Such differences in values may lead to real difficulties in communication.

Teachers may represent new ideas, the broader world; parents may be more provincial, may not be abreast of new ideas.

Teachers may be afraid of parents; the parent may be critical, and with reason. The teacher always knows he can and should do a better job of teaching, just as the parent knows he can do a better job of being a parent. Two people who fear each other cannot talk easily.

Teachers are not always sure of why they teach what they teach; they do not want someone coming around who may expect a clear statement about "Why teach history in units instead of by dates, the way they did when I went to school?"

Barriers such as these interfere with good communication between parent and teacher. It is up to the teacher to gain insight into the problem and attempt to overcome it.

The Parent Conference

The individual conference with the parent presents additional difficulties that we have yet to discuss. On the one hand, the teacher is a person whose education is often greater than that of the parent; on the other hand, the parent knows a great deal more about the life history of the child than the teacher can ever know. The higher personal stake of the parent in the welfare of the child introduces an element of emotionality that must be recognized. The same principles that operate in the student conference must also prevail in the parent conference. Here are a few warnings.¹⁸

1. The teacher should not be on the defensive.

PARENT: Well, Mary certainly got along better last year when she had Mrs. Dale for her English.

TEACHER: (Wrong) Perhaps Mrs. Dale didn't expect her to work very hard.

(Better) She seemed to get along better with Mrs. Dale.

2. The parent should not be put on the defensive.

TEACHER: (Wrong) Of course, some parents see to it that their children have a place to study at home.

(Better) Mary seems to find it difficult to get some of her work done at home.

3. Do not, by implication, suggest that parents are doing a poor job.

PARENT: I just don't know what to do with Mary, she is so rude.

TEACHER: (Wrong) You aren't severe enough with her.

(Better) You feel Mary isn't acting well at home.

¹⁸ Adapted from Faith W. Smither, and Bernard J. Lonsdale, "Interpreting Education." California State Department of Education, Division of Elementary Education, Sacramento, Calif., April 1, 1947. (Mimeographed)

4. Do not act omniscient.

TEACHER: (Wrong) Now, with students in this ability group, we always tell the parents that they should take a vocational course.

(Better) Mary seems to do better work in vocational courses. What do you think about this?

5. Do not sound like a social snob.

TEACHER: (Wrong) Now we have another student—his father is a doctor, you know—who is one of our top students.

6. Do not pry into other people's affairs.

PARENT: Oh, I am so mad at my husband.

TEACHER: (Wrong) Now, don't be afraid to tell me your problems; we are here to help you. What did your husband do?

(Better) Sometimes parents disagree. Now I think Mary . . .

7. Be prepared to hear unpleasant, disturbing, unexpected things.

PARENT: (Weeping) Oh, you just can't imagine the awful things that boy does. Why the other day . . .

TEACHER: (Wrong) Why, Mrs. Jones, you shouldn't say things like that.

(Better) These things can be very upsetting.

8. Be discriminating in the information you give.

PARENT: Now, tell me honestly, is Mary really dumb?

TEACHER: (Wrong) Now, Mrs. Jones, no one is really dumb.

(Wrong) Mary has an IQ of 80. That means she is probably subnormal. But there is nothing to worry about, really.

(Better) Mary has many assets. She has a good mind for practical and concrete problems, but she does not do so well with vague and abstract things. That's why she is adjusting so well to the new program we planned for her.

9. Do not become a partisan in family affairs.

PARENT: To tell the truth, Mary would be all right if her father would only stop nagging at her.

TEACHER: (Wrong) Yes, a lot of fathers really don't understand girls very well.

(Better) You feel Mary's father sometimes increases the problem.

These warnings to the teacher preparing to confer with parents may be multiplied many times.¹² As in any human-relations situation, there are many

¹² Grace Langdon and Irving Stout, *Teacher-Parent Interviews*. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice Hall, Inc., 1954. See Chapter 10, "Some Suggestions about What To Do If . . .," pp. 183-213.

pitfalls. The teacher with an adequate understanding of parents can learn to conduct parent conferences with ease and skill. But it takes experience and a real appreciation of the problems of parents in today's culture. It is suggested that some trial conferences be practiced before any actual conferences are held with parents. With the help of an audience, the teacher can gain insight into what was strong or weak in his handling of the conference.²⁰

One suggested structure is as follows:

1. Describe a strength, special ability, or interest of the student and discuss the educational implications of this with the parent.
2. Describe the student's most immediate need. Do not dwell on a weakness about which nothing can be done (low ability, physical handicap). The kind of weakness that can be helped through education is the major objective: improvement of reading, development of a hobby, finding a vocational objective, and the like. Get the parents' view of this weakness; what do the parents think might be done?
3. Discuss both the teacher's and parents' plans for the student. It must be kept in mind that most of the parents whom the teacher meets will be mothers. The mother is more apt to be available; and, during most of the child's school life, has taken the most active interest in his schooling. A working mother will probably ask for time off from a job more readily than a working father. The father, although interested in the progress of the child, usually cannot be as active in school affairs or find time for daytime conferences. Thus the teacher will want to make a special effort to understand the particular problems of wives and mothers, since he will have to work primarily with them.

Preparing and Planning for the Parent Conference

In preparing for the parent conference, it may help to have on hand examples of the work the student does.²¹ If the teacher is wise, his selection will include both good and poor work, in order that the parent may not get a distorted or hopeless view of his child. If the teacher shows the parent one D paper after another and then says, "See what I am up against in trying to work with Susy," irreparable damage may be done to the parent-child relationship as well as the future school progress of the student. It is important to start with positive material, and with something concrete to show the parent: a report, an examination, a drawing, a comment made by another student. This will give the parent a feeling of security. Of course, to follow this immediately with negative material may make the parent suspicious: "He just showed me that good paper in order to soften the blow." The teacher must realistically express the feeling: "John does both good and poor work; we are interested, both of us, in helping

²⁰ For an excellent description of this kind of training program see Celia B. Stenitzer, "Let's Look at Parent-Teacher Conferences," *Educational Leadership*, 6, February 1947, 272-277.

²¹ Smither and Lonsdale, *op. cit.*

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8. Be discriminating in the information you give.

PARENT: Now, tell me honestly, is Mary really dumb?

TEACHER: (Wrong) Now, Mrs. Jones, no one is really dumb.

(Wrong) Mary has an IQ of 80. That means she is probably subnormal. But there is nothing to worry about, really.

(Better) Mary has many assets. She has a good mind for practical and concrete problems, but she does not do so well with vague and abstract things. That's why she is adjusting so well to the new program we planned for her.

9. Do not become a partisan in family affairs.

PARENT: To tell the truth, Mary would be all right if her father would only stop nagging at her.

TEACHER: (Wrong) Yes, a lot of fathers really don't understand girls very well.

(Better) You feel Mary's father sometimes increases the problem.

These warnings to the teacher preparing to confer with parents may be multiplied many times.¹⁹ As in any human-relations situation, there are many

¹⁹ Grace Langdon and Irving Stout, *Teacher-Parent Interviews*. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice Hall, Inc., 1954. See Chapter 10, "Some Suggestions about What To Do If . . .," pp. 183-213.

pitfalls. The teacher with an adequate understanding of parents can learn to conduct parent conferences with ease and skill. But it takes experience and a real appreciation of the problems of parents in today's culture. It is suggested that some trial conferences be practiced before any actual conferences are held with parents. With the help of an audience, the teacher can gain insight into what was strong or weak in his handling of the conference.²⁰

One suggested structure is as follows:

1. Describe a strength, special ability, or interest of the student and discuss the educational implications of this with the parent.
2. Describe the student's most immediate need. Do not dwell on a weakness about which nothing can be done (low ability, physical handicap). The kind of weakness that can be helped through education is the major objective: improvement of reading, development of a hobby, finding a vocational objective, and the like. Get the parents' view of this weakness; what do the parents think might be done?
3. Discuss both the teacher's and parents' plans for the student. It must be kept in mind that most of the parents whom the teacher meets will be mothers. The mother is more apt to be available; and, during most of the child's school life, has taken the most active interest in his schooling. A working mother will probably ask for time off from a job more readily than a working father. The father, although interested in the progress of the child, usually cannot be as active in school affairs or find time for daytime conferences. Thus the teacher will want to make a special effort to understand the particular problems of wives and mothers, since he will have to work primarily with them.

Preparing and Planning for the Parent Conference

In preparing for the parent conference, it may help to have on hand examples of the work the student does.²¹ If the teacher is wise, his selection will include both good and poor work, in order that the parent may not get a distorted or hopeless view of his child. If the teacher shows the parent one *D* paper after another and then says, "See what I am up against in trying to work with Susy," irreparable damage may be done to the parent-child relationship as well as the future school progress of the student. It is important to start with positive material, and with something concrete to show the parent: a report, an examination, a drawing, a comment made by another student. This will give the parent a feeling of security. Of course, to follow this immediately with negative material may make the parent suspicious: "He just showed me that good paper in order to soften the blow." The teacher must realistically express the feeling: "John does both good and poor work; we are interested, both of us, in helping

²⁰ For an excellent description of this kind of training program see Celia B. Stendler, "Let's Look at Parent-Teacher Conferences," *Educational Leadership*, 6, February 1949, 292-299.

²¹ Smither and Lonsdale, *op. cit.*

him do more good than poor work. Here, I have some examples of his work. Let's look at this very good quiz he turned in yesterday. See—it is good because it shows grasp of the facts; it is neat; he had obviously studied and thought about the material. But in this paper, he just threw anything at all together."

Home Visits

Visiting students' homes is not normally a part of the expected activities of secondary teachers. This is unfortunate for many obvious reasons. An enterprising teacher may well do some home visiting on his own, but there is typically no planned program. Teachers who find themselves in new surroundings, in communities or parts of the country quite different from those in which they were reared might make a deliberate effort to conduct some home visits. It is important that teachers in inner-city schools, who have had only book contact with such communities, make home visits because that experience makes the situation real and relevant. The lack of close contact with the student's living environment is one of the causes for the distance between what is taught and what the student needs to learn. Many inner-city parents need school programs interpreted to them, so that they can better understand how they can help their youngsters attain the educational achievement that is so valuable. Prior to such visits reading the short story, "Operation Buena Vista,"²² will provide some idea of what not to do or say.

RECOMMENDED READING

- Amos, William E., and Jean D. Grambs (eds.). *Counseling the Disadvantaged Youth*. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1968. A collection of chapters by specialists written for this book only, providing a useful overview of the problems of the disadvantaged youth and how he may be helped.
- Fedder, Ruth. *The High School Principal and Staff Develop Group Guidance*. New York: Teachers College Press, Columbia University, 1962.
- Future Jobs for High School Girls*. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1966. A valuable handbook for teachers describing the jobs high-school girls may acquire if provided with the right information and guidance at the right time.
- "Guidance, Counseling, and Personnel Services," *Review of Educational Research*, 36, April 1966. The American Educational Research Association publishes, in two- or three-year cycles, reviews of research in specialized areas. The volume cited represents the latest in terms of publication date of this book. The references are timely; the introductory essays are valuable discussions of trends, issues, and promising practices.
- Kemp, Barbara H. *The Youth We Haven't Served: A Challenge to Vocational Education*. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1966. A brief, concise, but accurate, statement about youth from educationally deprived backgrounds who have not had adequate vocational guidance, with descriptions of programs that could be of value to such people.

²² Irwin Faust, "Operation Buena Vista," *Paris Review*, Fall 1963, pp. 86-105.

- Kohler, Mary C., and Marcia K. Freedman. *Youth and the World of Work*. New York: Taconic Foundation, 1962. Reports on 55 experimental programs to provide work-study help for youth who would otherwise be unemployable.
- Konopka, Gisela. *The Adolescent Girl in Conflict*. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1966. Sensitive report of girls from lower- and middle-class groups. Illustrates differences between boy and girl delinquents.
- Kushel, Gerald. *Discord in Teacher-Counselor Relations: Cases from the Teacher's View*. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1967. An excellent set of cases for class discussion with suggestions for role-playing. Will help provide a sense of reality to student-teacher-counselor, school-parent, and community inter-relatedness.
- MacLennan, Beryce W., and Naomi Felsenfeld. *Group Counseling and Psychotherapy with Adolescents*. New York: Columbia University Press, 1968. Provides valuable insight into the dynamics of adolescent groups.
- Meyer, H., H. Borgatta, and W. P. Jones. *Girls at Vocational High*. New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1965. A careful research study that shows the value of group guidance with girls when other methods are unsuccessful.
- Mirengoff, William (ed.). *Breakthrough for Disadvantaged Youth*. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Labor, Manpower Administration, 1969. A detailed report on the many experiments and pilot projects designed to aid disadvantaged youth find a place in the job market.
- Richardson, Stephen A., Barbara S. Dohrenwent, and David Klein. *Interviewing, Its Forms and Functions*. New York: Basic Books, Inc., 1965. Specialized study of the procedures and research relating to varying types of interviewing. The data are intrinsically interesting, and for the teacher particularly interested in becoming a skilled interviewer this book will provide considerable data.
- Roe, Anne. *The Psychology of Occupations*. New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1956. One of the classical analyses in the field.
- Sachs, Benjamin M. *The Student, the Interview and the Curriculum*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1966. A particularly valuable book for the secondary school teacher because of the inclusion of detailed case studies including interview protocols that provide a guide for the teacher-counselor. The problems students present in the cases reported are typical of many the teacher will meet.
- Schreiber, Daniel. *Profile of the School Dropout*. New York: Random House, Inc., 1968. Includes provocative essays by Goodman, Riessman, Bettelheim, Deutsch, and others, pointing out the role the school plays in "forcing out" many students before their educational potential is realized.
- Stewart, Lawrence H., and Charles F. Warnath. *The Counselor and Society*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1965. Although primarily for counselors, the approach is a useful one for the teacher because the emphasis is on more than just the one-to-one relationship—includes, in addition, community, staff, and school system problems.
- Super, Donld E. *The Psychology of Careers*. New York: Harper & Row, Publishers, 1957. An interesting discussion of the psychological factors that enter into career choice.
- . *Career Development: Self-concept Theory*. New York: College Entrance Examination Board, 1963. A valuable analysis for the teacher showing the relationship between how the student feels about himself and his career choice.

Watson, Goodwin (ed.). *No Room at the Bottom*. Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1963. Excellent brief statement on the effect of automation upon the undereducated, with some suggestions for ways out of the dilemma.

The World of Troubled Youth. Reading, Mass.: Addison-Wesley Publishing Company, 1966-1967. A series of records and manuals for discussion leaders to use with adults or teen-agers. The problems discussed are: "The Vicious Circle," "The In-Betweeners," "The Latchkey Child," "The Community," "The Teen-agers Bridge the Generations," "The Deciders." The material is lively, provocative, and real.

From the Top of the Tower

*secondary education
in the year 2000*

18

The schools of America have always been characterized by an interesting diversity. Foreign observers are usually amazed to note that adjacent school districts may have programs that are worlds, rather than miles, apart. Yet at the same time, there are common characteristics. In a society with a highly mobile population, schools cannot be too different; the secondary-school student transferring from one district to another, even if it is across country, expects some assurance that the two years of French studied in Arlington, Virginia, will be sufficient prerequisite for entering third-year French in San Diego, California.

As one looks into the future from the top of the tower—the ivory tower of the university which may or may not be ivy clad as well—the forces that make for change, innovation, and variety are also seen to be balanced by forces in American education and society that discourage the too-rapid move into new programs. The general expectation is that the public schools, wherever they may be, will have a familiar context. It is, therefore, one thing to describe what one would like to see, and another to describe what he expects to see in the secondary schools, circa A.D. 2000. Just as preceding chapters have tried to balance preparations for what is often an uncomfortable and educationally indefensible reality with descriptions of better practices, so the view of the future must take cognizance of what might happen, as against what ought to happen.

The teacher presently entering the field may safely make one assumption: adolescents in the year 2000 will not be like the adolescents of the 1970s. The

adolescents of the future will differ in much the same way as adolescents now differ from those of the 1930s. As the adolescent he teaches will be different, the teacher will be also; he will be older. The first prediction, then, about teaching in the year 2000 is that those entering the profession now will need to be as familiar with the culture of the "new generation" as today's older teachers are expected to understand (if not approve of) the hippie, the Black Power militant, the miniskirted eighth grader, and the underground newspaper editor and his discovery of four-letter words. These phenomena will inevitably be replaced by a different adolescent culture. What distresses the adult generation today probably will appear old-fashioned and slightly ridiculous ("You mean they were shocked by that?"). The Generation Gap is not unique to the 1970s, any more than it will be to the year 2000. A difference may exist: a clearer insight into adult-youth relationship, along with more adequate techniques for cross-generation communication.

The teacher of the year 2000 will continue to be part of the same human system, where adults induct nonadults into the expectations of society. The processes whereby this induction takes place may, however, be changed.

The hope, of course, from the top of the tower, is that the school, as one of the institutions which convoys youth into adult society, will indeed be drastically changed. The view of thousands, if not millions, of alienated youth, of non-educated youth, of youth who find violence more rational than any other course of action, is obviously and clearly related to some missing ingredient in their growing up. The schools, as places where these individuals at least parked their bodies for specified periods of time, may thus be charged with some responsibility. It is instructive, if not always illuminating, to observe the accusations and counter-charges of blame for both the apathy of today's youth and their penchant for protest.¹ Can such exchanges contribute the kind of help that classroom teachers need in educational planning? We have our doubts.

¹ Jeanne H. Block, Norma Haan, and M. Brewster Smith, "Activism and Apathy in Contemporary Adolescents." In *Understanding Adolescents*, James F. Adams (ed.). Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1968, pp. 198-231. See also Lewis Feuer, "The Decline of Freedom at Berkeley," *Atlantic*, 218, September 1966, 78-82. See also responses in *Atlantic*, 218, October 1966, 105-111; Susan Jacoby, "Howard University: In Search of a Black Identity," *Saturday Review*, 51, April 20, 1968, 60-62 ff.; Christopher Jencks, and David Riesman, "The War between the Generations," *Teachers College Record*, 69, October 1967, 1-21; Kenneth Keniston, *Young Radicals, Notes on Committed Youth*. New York: Harcourt, Brace & World, Inc., 1968. Stephen Koch, "Busted," *New Republic*, 158, March 23, 1968, 17-19; Henry F. May, "The Student Movement: Some Impressions at Berkeley," *The American Scholar*, 34, Summer 1965, 387-399; Martin Meyerson, "The Ethos of the American College Student: Beyond the Protests," *Daedalus*, 95, Summer 1966, 713-739; "Patterns of Violence," *The Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*, vol. 364, March 1966. Articles cited report on violence in the general culture, criminal violence, and violence as a police violence also may be seen as a cult, as, for example, the Black Muslims, and current Black Power militant leadership; also see Hunter S. Thompson's *Hell's Angels: The Strange and Terrible Saga of the Outlaw Motorcycle Gangs*. New York: Random House, Inc., 1967; "Stirrings out of Apathy: Student Activism and the Decade of Protest," *Journal of Social Issues*, 23, July 1967. (Entire issue); "The Troubled Campus" (selected articles), *Atlantic*, 216, November 1965, 108-160.

Indeed, one extreme example, which appears to us to miss the point entirely as to the problems of educational irrelevance, is the following:

The continuing decline in the study of Latin is one of the clearest signs of the ominous trend toward nonintellectualism, or even anti-intellectualism, in the culture of this country. Such tendencies are apparently based on a vulgar presumption of the superior "relevance" of the "modern" or the "American" or the "practical." They are based also on ignorance and laziness and fear, traits which may be becoming national and genetic. Latin civilization lies near the base of Western culture; as T. S. Eliot has said, the ancients are "that which we know." We cease to know them at our own peril, not theirs. Without Latin, for example, we can only know English and American language and literature as vulgar modern artifacts. They are not that, but we are very near making them that by our busy inefficient barbarism.²

The above example may indeed appear to be rather removed from the critical concerns of the day, but it exemplifies the variety of values effecting educational criticism.

Prescriptions for the ills of youth culture today are interesting if only for their diversity, but are of limited assistance in setting up indicators for what teachers will be teaching in another quarter century or so. The moral, however, is very obvious: just as there is significant and vociferous lack of agreement as to what ought to be the proper kind of education today, we predict—and indeed hope—that the same lack of agreement prevails in 2000.

If it were to come to pass that there were a national system of education in the United States, agreed to and supported by all in or out of power, this would manifest a decline in the American spirit and the end of the inventive contribution of Americans to the intellectual life of the world. Diversity in educational programs, it is hoped, will be as keenly debated and critically viewed in the year 2000 as now and the teacher in that era, as today, will find schools of all kinds—some considered adequate and modern; others that are distinctively different and "way out"; and some gracefully (or distressingly) "old-fashioned." This kind of diversity has made the task of teacher preparation difficult today and will, we hope, make it difficult for the same reason in the future. If we prepare teachers for the best and the newest right now, it is with only faint optimism that we expect that they will find jobs in schools that are organized and equipped for this kind of education. More often, beginning teachers and student teachers remark on how "traditional" or "backward" the field situation is. In 2000, hopefully, one will find more congruence between what is preached in the tower and what is practiced on the plains below.

Educational preachments probably will continue to be characterized at the turn of the next century, even as today, with wide variations among scholars of education as to what educational process is most effective and what educational content is of most worth. These are perennial concerns of all open societies. The strength of such societies rests upon the ability of their institutions to deal creatively with diversity, to continue to invent and to innovate, and to provide

² Council for Basic Education *Bulletin*, 13, December 1968, 5-6.

new alternatives for both old and new problems. Complacency about educational solutions is only possible in a static or controlled society.

One difference between today and the year 2000 in the way in which educational problems may be debated will be the increased sophistication of data utilized and evaluation conducted on the process and the product. Much of what is presently done in the schools rests on passionate adherence to tradition, or on apathy, or "Because I like it this way." By the year 2000, with vastly increased knowledge of human learning and motivation and the utilization of a variety of skills and talents, many hunches will be replaced by data. The questions of values, however, will remain.

Undoubtedly some of today's vexing value questions will be resolved by the end of the century, but some of the eternal questions of ends-means, of right-wrong, of truth, of beauty, of justice, will continue. The question for educators will be the extent to which such questions permeate the classroom. The present bland curriculum bores both students and teachers,³ yet the curriculum of controversy and conflict, as well as methods that encourage unorthodox curiosity about many of the phenomena of man and society must struggle for survival.

This struggle between defenders of a bland curriculum and those who, for various and often conflicting reasons, pressure for a freer, more militant, more inquiring education, will inevitably affect the form and appearance of schools. The entombment of education in a massive school building, in which adolescents are crammed and stunned for six hours a day will inevitably give way to new institutional designs. As youth becomes less passive, more militant, better educated by television and family mobility, adaptations in curriculum and methodology will have to follow. No society can long resist a mass pressure by a significant proportion of its population. Either the society itself crumbles or it sanctions new institutional forms that can deal with the pressure. It can be envisioned, therefore, that secondary schools in the year 2000 may retain only a few vestiges of the nineteenth-century model, currently the barrier to educational change.

The teacher whom Ole Sand describes as the "two-by-four-by-six teacher" will be almost completely obsolete: the teacher restricted to the two covers of the textbook, the four walls of a classroom, and the six periods of the day.⁴ Instead, teachers will instruct in museums, aboard ships, on the floor of a factory, in a storefront or at a secluded primitive forest site. Geography may be studied while flying over land masses; culture by on-site living in foreign communities; athletics in special facilities for recreational or health needs; job-related learning will be tailored to the changing needs and interests of young people. The school will have broken out of its walls, freed itself from the stranglehold of the Carnegie unit and escaped from the concept that education is a "thing" that occurs only

³ "School Is a Bore," (entire issue), *Educator's Guide to Media and Methods*, 5, April 1967.

⁴ Ole Sand, "Schools for the '70's: Opus Two." Boston: National Education Association, Department of Elementary School Principals, April 1967. (Unpublished speech)

between the ages of 6 and 18 (or until 22 for the college group) and in a special building called "Howard P. Taft High School."

Until recently, teachers were often perceived as meek and obedient. While they may have seen themselves as working in impossible situations, treated with a lack of professional courtesy, and underpaid, the idea of protest on their part was unthinkable. Even during the hungriest days of the Depression, when teachers, like many others, were not paid or had deep salary cuts or were paid in scrip rather than with money, there were few voices heard objecting. While other workers organized and staged massive strikes in industry after industry, thereby consolidating their positions (and increasing wages and fringe benefits), teachers were quiet.

During the decade 1956 through 1966, teacher militancy at last appeared and during that period 35 strikes occurred in the nation's schools. In 1967, there were 100 strikes through which teachers demanded bargaining rights, increased salaries, and better working conditions. The prediction for the years between now and the year 2000 is that there will be increased teacher militancy, which will certainly help to alter the state of education for that time.

Education in the year 2000 will be, in many places, such a flexible concept that no four walls could contain it. The educational life span of an individual will also be significantly redefined. Movement in and out of "school" will be related to individual levels of competence achieved and related to individual motivations. The variety of educational experiences will be sufficient to permit students and their parents to locate an educational complex that fits; it will no longer be necessary to fit the student to whatever school happens to be in his neighborhood.

The proportion of trained personnel to the youth being educated will be vastly altered; in time each student will be served by a number of educational specialists, with a student specialist ratio of about 3 to 1; society will thereby be insured against the current tragic failure of many young people to find productive and personally satisfying life patterns. The jails and reformatories of the future will be inhabited mostly by the nonadapting members of the older generation rather than the alarming numbers of youth who now are the chief contributors to the delinquent population.

The ends of education in the year 2000 will be measured as John Goodlad suggests not by "What knowledge is of the most worth?" but rather, by "What kinds of human beings do we want to produce?"⁵ Human beings will become the criteria for evaluating technologies as educational instruments. If the adroit use of new technologies contributes to more educationally rational persons, then they will be so used. Efficiency, however, will be less significant than the quality of the human being who enters adult citizenship. For this reason, the ways in which groups of young people work together, as well as the varieties of adults who work with youth, will be utilized with more sophistication. The ends will determine the means. Assessment of individuals will be the criteria to be used, and not a

⁵ John I. Goodlad, "The Future of Learning and Teaching," *AV Communication Review*, 16, Spring 1968, 5-15.

cliché to massage the egos of inept administrators, teachers, and reluctant board members. In today's school, class size is determined primarily by the numbers of students who enroll and the numbers of chairs, desks, books, or pieces of equipment that a given area can encompass. By the year 2000 the built-in deficits of such a system will have been so clearly identified that most students in most communities, will be provided the correct educational program at the correct time and in the appropriate group and place.

The view from the top of the tower is not completely optimistic. Between now and the year 2000, man must come to terms with his penchant for irrational destruction of other human beings and of his environment; he must develop ways of unleashing his creativity while more rigorously schooling his intellect; and he must learn and exercise compassion within his own household. The generations between now and the year 2000 will be schooled in an outworn academy, using the wrong means toward vague and disputed ends. It may be only by the grace of some eternal or divine teleological imperative that man will prevail, and along with him more of what is good, true, and beautiful.

RECOMMENDED READING

- Anderson, Robert H. *Teaching in a World of Change*. New York: Harcourt, Brace & World, Inc., 1966. Identifies contemporary problems of dealing with educational change, many of which will persist for decades ahead.
- Brown, B. Frank. *The Nongraded High School*. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1963. The first report on a revolutionary new design for secondary education—a nongraded program with curriculum-in-motion; based on the experience in Melbourne High School (Florida).
- Brubaker, Dale L. *Innovation in the Social Studies: Teachers Speak for Themselves*. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell Company, 1968. Exciting reports by teachers of "new practices." The question one wants to ask is why these are such single examples and how long it will take for others to catch up.
- Bundy, McGeorge, and others. *Reconnections for Learning: A Community School System for New York City*. New York Mayor's Advisory Panel on Decentralization of New York City Schools, 1967.
- Bush, Robert, and Allen Dwight. *A New Design for Secondary Education*. New York: McGraw-Hill, Inc., 1964. Describes the kind of flexible secondary-school programming possible when full utilization is made of the possibilities of computerizing school schedules.
- "The Changing American People. Are We Deteriorating or Improving?" *Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*, 378, July 1968, 1-129. This whole issue is devoted to essays examining the data in the many areas of social life with implications for what may lie ahead if present problems are not resolved.
- "Computer Assisted Instruction," *Datamation*, 14, September 1968, 22-48. Five articles by specialists in computer-assisted instruction discuss the issues and problems that this new educational technology presents.
- Educator's Guide to Media and Methods*, 5, April 1969, No. 8. Media and Methods Institute, 124 East 40 St., New York, N.Y. 10016. Entire issue devoted

- to responses of students throughout the United States and Canada (middle school through graduate school) expressing their belief that "school is a bore." Extremely insightful observations that serve as demanding challenges to anyone interested in becoming a teacher at any level of education.
- Fabun, Don. *The Dynamics of Change*. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1967. A sweeping examination of some of the major possible areas of change in the foreseeable future. Particularly exemplary is the imaginative format utilized to dramatize and focus on major ideas.
- Fantini, Mario D., and Gerald Weinstein. *The Disadvantaged: Challenge to Education*. New York: Harper & Row, Publishers, 1968. For the authors, "disadvantaged" includes not only the impoverished, the racial or ethnic minorities, and the educationally deprived, but also any child for whom the established educational process and curriculum is outdated, inadequate, or irrelevant.
- Frymier, Jack. *Fostering Educational Change*. Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill Books, Inc., 1969. Deals with principles and policies that can effect changes in curriculum, staff, and teacher-student-administrator relations.
- Goodlad, John I. *The Future of Learning and Teaching*. Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1967. In this brief essay the man-machine dilemma as it faces the educator of tomorrow is succinctly stated, with some possible humane educational alternatives to avoid disaster.
- , Renata Von Steophasius, and Frances M. Klein. *The Changing School Curriculum*. New York: The Fund for the Advancement of Education, 1966. Considers changes of the school program during the last two decades. Included are programs in mathematics, physical and biological sciences, social science, humanities, health education, and programs related to the educational program and activities.
- Holt, John. "Why We Need New Schooling," *Look*, 34, January 13, 1970, 52. Controversial and stimulating proposals for making education relevant to life.
- Joyce, Bruce R. *Man, Media, and Machines: The Teacher and His Staff*. Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1967. An imaginative educator describes briefly, and with specific details, the way a possible teaching team of the future will work with students, utilizing variety of media and technology as well as people.
- Katz, Michael B. *The Irony of Early School Reform*. Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1968. An historical study of three crises in early education; there are relevant lessons for reformers by a look at past efforts. A particularly lucid and illuminating report.
- Kelman, Herbert C. *A Time To Speak: On Human Values and Social Research*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, Inc., 1968. Perceptive essays on the ethical questions arising from the study of people and society.
- Leonard, George B. *Education and Ecstasy*. New York: Delacorte Press, 1968. See "Visiting Day, 2001 A.D." A dedicated humanist describes the kind of educational program he considers essential to producing rational and passionate world citizens.
- Michael, Donald N. *The Next Generation: The Prospects Ahead for the Youth of Today and Tomorrow*. New York: Vintage Books, 1963. A well-written, succinct, and scholarly appraisal of the forces in American life that will affect the ways in which youth will be growing up in the years ahead. Not all wine and roses.
- Miles, Matthew B. (ed.). *Innovation in Education*. New York: Teachers College

- Press, Columbia University, 1964. Especially valuable is the final chapter by Miles which identifies the way innovation proceeds—or fails.
- "New Media: Men and Machines," *The News Letter*. Columbus, Ohio: College of Education, Ohio State University, 33, May 1968, No. 8. Balanced consideration of the role played by machines in making teaching a more efficient and effective process.
- Proctor, Samuel D. *The Young Negro in America: 1960-1980*. New York: Association Press, 1966. Where he is and where he seeks to go in education, employment, social and political status.
- Profiles of Significant Schools*. Publications of the Educational Facilities Laboratory, 477 Madison Avenue, New York, New York 10022. These various publications of this Ford Foundation center describe schools both projected and actually being built which embody many principles of education which might be generally accepted by the year 2000.
- Sand, Ole. "The School of the '70's—Amazing Changes Ahead," *Family Weekly*, September 1, 1968. One man's view of imminent teaching and learning.
- This Magazine Is About Schools*. Toronto, Canada. A new journal on educational innovation with a particular Canadian flavor. Some of the innovations described and discussed and the criticisms of contemporary education suggest possible future developments. Irreverent, controversial, and stimulating.
- Time, Talent and Teachers*. New York: The Ford Foundation, 1960. Reports on educational innovations supported by the Ford Foundation. Topics include "The Professional Partnership," "The Flexible School," and "Electronics, Architecture, and Learning."
- Trump, J. Lloyd, and Delmas F. Miller. *Secondary School Curriculum Improvement: Proposals and Procedures*. Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1968. Trump has been identified with many of the innovations in secondary education in the 1960s. Here he addresses himself to the many problems that face the secondary schools as they adapt and change.
- Vablonsky, Lewis. *The Hippie Trip*. New York: Pegasus (Western Publishing Company), 1968. One can only wonder what the children of these young people will be like 15 years from now. How will their influence be felt on schools and teachers by the year 2000?
- "The Year 2000." *Daedalus*, Journal of the American Academy of Arts and Sciences, 96, Summer 1967. (Entire issue). A number of experts make their predictions about the state of the world in the future.

Appendix

The following films are among those selected by the authors that they consider to have specific value for students of teaching. The interaction analysis schema (pp. 34-35) can be applied to some of these films to develop expertise on the part of the students before going into live classrooms.

And No Bells Ring—Parts I and II—56 min. (both parts)—National Association of Secondary School Principals, NEA (Washington, D.C.)—1960

Shows what a flexible school will look like; how students will be grouped; what kinds of teaching tasks will be required in the new school.

The Berkeley Rebels—58 min.—United Church of Christ (distrib.)

TV special which brilliantly documents the college youth rebellion of the late 1960s.

Buzz Session—22 min.—United Auto Workers, CIO—1953

Shows how a buzz session works with adults.

Censorship—A Question of Conviction—6 min.—Horizon Film Productions—1964

An open-ended short film which poses the problem of freedom of the press in a secondary school. Very relevant to today's issues in regard to student demands for greater freedom of expression.

A Chance To Learn—17 min.—NBC Educational Enterprises—1969

Local control, hiring of teachers and curriculum selection figure prominently in this film which reveals many of the problems facing urban schools.

Child of the Future—55 min.—United Church of Christ (distrib.)—1968

Communications expert Marshall McLuhan examines some possible ways in which tomorrow's children will learn.

Critical Moments in Teaching Film Series—Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc.—1968, 1969, 1970

Sixteen problem-centered open-ended films which focus on recurrent situations that teachers face. Some are at the elementary level, some at the secondary level. The situations are well developed, and the open-ended nature of the presentation provides an ideal stimulus for classroom discussion and/or role playing of endings. Each film is from 8 to 12 minutes long. A teacher's manual and student guide accompany the set of films.

Titles in the series especially for secondary schools are:

Some Courses Don't Count (A student is faced with a decision of desirability vs. practicality in choosing an elective.)

Just a Simple Misunderstanding (A student unthinkingly parrots his teacher's comments on the philosophy of famous writers, causing trouble at home.)

The Day the Insects Took Over (Restoring order to a classroom discussion that has gone astray.)

The Poetry in Paul (Handling a case of student plagiarism.)

Less Far than the Arrow (Motivating a high-school class in poetry.)

Report Card (How should students be graded: junior high.)

Tense: Imperfect (The do-gooder teacher in a low socioeconomic area.)

Walls (Apathy in a secondary-school class.)

I Walk Away in the Rain (High IQ and low effort.)

Freedom to Read—14 min.—Anti-Defamation League of B'nai B'rith (distrib.)—1954

When censorship strikes the library.

From the Inside Out—24 min.—McGraw-Hill, Inc.—1968

Written and directed by black teenagers of Richmond, California. What it is like to be black and live in a ghetto.

High School—75 min.—Osti (264 Third Street, Cambridge, Mass.)—1969

Biting documentary of life in a "typical" middle-class large high school. Shows the many unconscious ways the system dehumanizes adolescents. See review, *Media and Methods*, 6 (September 1969), 54+.

The Humanities Films: Their Aims and Uses—27 min.—Encyclopaedia Britannica Educational Corporation—1959

Clips from approximately 15 films in the EBE Humanities Program with discussion of best uses.

If. . .—105 mins.—Paramount Films—1969

A feature length film about the ultimate destruction of humane education in an English private school ending with the students taking over and gunning down all the adults.

Incident on Wilson Street—51 min.—United Church of Christ (distrib.)—1969

An elementary school teacher performing her job with compassion and wisdom in Brooklyn, New York.

Jenny—ABC Pictures Corporation and Palomar Pictures—1969

A feature length film about youth today, specifically an unmarried pregnant girl who comes to New York to have her baby. Controversial and current.

Let Them Learn—27 min.—Encyclopaedia Britannica Educational Corporation—1967

Classroom vignettes and excerpts from films which show how films aid in classroom learning when appropriately used.

Make a Mighty Reach—45 min.—National Education Association—1966

Innovations in curriculum, buildings, and methods found throughout the country. Remembering that the incidents reported are indications of what is being tried, the film is informative and encouraging.

Mike Makes His Mark—29 min.—Agra Films (NEA distrib.)—1955

What makes a boy drop out of school? How can he be brought back?

The Miracle Worker—96 min.—United Artists—1962

The immensely moving film story of how Annie Sullivan taught the deaf-mute Helen Keller how to communicate.

More Different than Alike—35 min.—National Education Association—1966

Some unique and creative school programs which provide for individual learning differences.

Nobody Waved Goodby—80 min.—Brandon Films—1964

Adolescents in conflict with today's culture and what this conflict means to them.

No Reason To Stay—28 min.—National Film Board of Canada—1966

Excruating; part of the day in the life of a high-school student who is cast out by the "system." Highly recommended.

Phoebe—28 min.—National Film Board of Canada—1967

A sensitive and moving portrayal of the dilemma of a teenage girl who becomes pregnant.

Project Discovery: A Demonstration in Education—27 min.—Encyclopaedia Britannica Educational Corporation—1966

Documentary showing what happens when a whole school is equipped with maximum audio-visual resources.

Promises To Keep—28 min.—National Education Association—1969

Presentation of effective teaching in inner-city schools.

The Quiet Revolution—28 min.—National Education Association—1966

Shows five schools utilizing new procedures such as team teaching, flexible scheduling, nongraded programs.

Sixteen in Webster Groves—47 min.—United Church of Christ (distrib.)—1966

Conformity of suburban youth, circa 1967. How does youth today compare?

The Student—16 min.—McGraw-Hill (distrib.)—1969

A film made by students about students using fantasy to raise critical questions about learning and about life.

Summerhill—28 min.—National Film Board of Canada—1966

A visit at the famous English educational experimental school and with its founder, A. S. Neill. Highly interesting.

Teachers?—13 min.—Franciscan Films—1958

A provocative and unusual parody of teaching styles which highlights by exaggeration those things which make a teacher good—and bad.

Teaching—A Question of Method—6 min.—Horizon Film Productions—1964

A secondary-school history teacher is faced with a dilemma about what he should teach about the literal or historical "truth" of the Bible. Open-ended. Highly recommended.

Teaching the One and the Many—28 min.—National Education Association—1966

How faculty and students in a small rural junior-senior high school utilize modern technology for individualizing instruction.

A Time for Learning—36 min.—New York: Chelsea House, University-at-Large Films—1968

An intriguing mixture of actual classrooms at work interspersed with commentary by Jerome Bruner presenting not only the ideas that lie behind the curriculum program, "Man, a Course of Study," but behind the development of inquiry procedures and classroom gaming. Although the material is used with a fifth grade, the generalizations about learning as developed by Bruner are applicable in other areas and levels.

To Sir, with Love—105 min.—Columbia Cinematheque—1967

Film version of the book by the same name, with Sidney Poitier portraying the problems of a black teacher in an English slum secondary school.

Toward Inquiry: Teaching Earth Science—21 min.—Encyclopaedia Britannica Educational Corporation—1967

An actual classroom demonstration plus frank comments of students and secondary-school teachers utilizing the investigative approach of the Earth Science Curriculum Project.

Up the Down Staircase—Warner Brothers—1967

Film version of the highly popular novel; could be viewed as a contrast to *To Sir, with Love*.

You're No Good—28 min.—National Film Board of Canada—1965

A disturbing and moving analysis of the making of a delinquent, involving questions about authority, freedom, and personal worth.

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